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ABSTRACT

Intended as a reference volume for elementary and secondary school administrators, this annotated bibliography is divided into 20 chapters on topics of current interest in the educational field. A total of 307 annotations of documents and journal articles that have been indexed in the ERIC system are included. The materials selected for inclusion cover major issues and proposed solutions to problems concerning such topics as mainstreaming, school law, discipline, stress, teacher dismissal, vouchers, merit pay, and teacher supervision. (WD)

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THE BEST OF ERIC

VOLUME 3

EA 014 476

ERIC
CLEARINGHOUSE
ON EDUCATIONAL
MANAGEMENT

The Best of the Best of ERIC

Volume 3

1982
ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management
University of Oregon
Eugene, Oregon 97403

Preface

This volume has been compiled with the busy school administrator in mind. We have taken the best literature the ERIC system has to offer, extracted the most important information it contains, and presented this material in an easy-to-use form. *The Best of the Best of ERIC,* Volume 3 is intended for use as a handy reference volume. Each chapter contains annotations of the prime literature on a topic of current interest to the school administrator. A quick perusal of any chapter gives the reader a good idea of major issues and proposed solutions to problems in each of the twenty areas. Each chapter contains reviews of about fifteen reports and journal articles selected for their currency, relevance, and practical value.

The Best of the Best combines and updates issues forty-one through sixty of *The Best of ERIC,* our annotated bibliography series. It contains more than eighty new annotations of reports and journal articles that have become available since the original issues of *The Best of ERIC* were published. Several entries that appeared in the original series have been rewritten and expanded. Items no longer relevant have been omitted. The volume contains a total of 306 annotations.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management published the first issue of *The Best of ERIC* in September 1974. Eight years and sixty issues later, the series has earned the distinction of being a unique attempt to present readily usable information in the ERIC system to school practitioners. This volume is the culmination of our efforts to deliver to school administrators the crème de la crème—the best of the best of ERIC.

Philip K. Piele
Director

ERIC and ERIC/CEM

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a national information system operated by the National Institute of Education. ERIC serves the educational community by disseminating educational research results and other resource information that can be used in developing more effective educational programs.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, one of several clearinghouses in the system, was established at the University of Oregon in 1966. The Clearinghouse and its companion units process research reports and journal articles for announcement in ERIC's index and abstract bulletins.

Research reports are announced in *Resources in Education (RIE),* available in many libraries and by subscription for $70 a year from the United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Most of the documents listed in *RIE* can be purchased through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, operated by Computer Microfilm International Corporation.

Journal articles are announced in *Current Index to Journals in Education. CIJE* is also available in many libraries and can be ordered for $115 (plus postage) a year from The Oryx Press, 2214 N. Central at Encanto, Phoenix, AZ 85004. Semiannual cumulations can be ordered separately.

Besides processing documents and journal articles, the Clearinghouse has another major function—information analysis and synthesis. The Clearinghouse prepares bibliographies, literature reviews, state-of-the knowledge papers, and other interpretive research studies on topics in its educational area.

The material in this publication was prepared pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the Center for Educational Policy and Management for critical review and determination of professional competence. This publication has met such standards. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the Center for Educational Policy and Management or the National Institute of Education.

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Administration of Mainstreaming

1

Coursen, David. *Administration of Mainstreaming.* School Management Digest Series 1, No. 22. Burlingame, California: Association of California School Administrators, 1981. Prepared by ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon. 39 pages. ED 204 834.

The traditional "mainstreaming debate," says Coursen, focused on "whether handicapped students were better off in self-contained special classes or in the regular classroom." Since the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (P.L. 94-142) in 1975, however, "the question is no longer an 'either or' choice between the two settings." School personnel now *must* educate handicapped children in "the most effective and least restrictive educational environment," which means in the regular classroom as much as is possible.

Unfortunately, this well-intentioned law did not provide school personnel with much guidance in the "nuts-and-bolts" details of administrating mainstreaming. Coursen here helps fill this void by specifically describing just what administrators can and should do to make mainstreaming work.

Of course, specific skills are important in administrating mainstreaming, but "an appropriate attitude—a belief that all children are entitled to appropriate quality education"—is the most essential element to mainstreaming's success. Thus, Coursen devotes a significant portion of this excellent digest to an explanation of "the legal, political, and historical background of mainstreaming," to help engender an understanding of mainstreaming and an appropriate attitude toward the education of the handicapped.

Coursen explains the provisions of P.L. 94-142—including its requirement for an "Individualized Educational Program" (IEP) for each child—and then describes recent California legislation designed to abolish disability categories and provide services to students on the basis of need. The coordination of regular and special instructional services is covered in detail, with special attention given to IEPs, setting educational objectives, proper placement, and grading.

The principal is absolutely crucial to the success of mainstreaming. This is attested to by the many educators interviewed by the author for this publication and by the numerous educational articles that he freely quotes. Coursen explains in detail the principal's role in administrating mainstreaming, including his or her responsibilities in shaping attitudes, providing special services and an appropriate physical environment, and coordinating participative planning among various educators and parents.

2

Davis, E. Dale. *Promising Practices in Mainstreaming for the Secondary School Principal.* 1977. 17 pages. ED 161 189.

The principal should be the leader, authority, and information source on implementing mainstreaming in his or her school, according to Davis.

Davis surveyed the literature since 1970 and asked fifty secondary school principals to state five to ten promising practices they would recommend to principals starting mainstreaming programs. The principals, all with programs underway, worked in Maryland, California, Texas, North Carolina, and Georgia.

Having found general agreement between the principals' comments and the literature, Davis lists the ten most often recommended practices in his report. For example, the principal should be thoroughly informed on state and federal regulations, as well as local school board policy, and should inform his faculty on such rules. The principal should motivate faculty efforts with tangible rewards (released time and so forth), assess faculty attitudes toward mainstreaming, provide a personal model of the practice of individualization, and supply the resources needed to implement individualized instruction.

Principals should also play a major role in encouraging parent involvement and create an atmosphere that nurtures the positive social readjustment of all students affected by the mainstreaming program—handicapped and nonhandicapped.

3

Dougherty, John W. "Implementing IEPs—Implications for the Principal." *NASSP Bulletin,* 63, 431 (December 1979), pp. 49-54. EJ 211 016.

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act requires that all handicapped children have an Individualized Educational Program (IEP) prepared for them at the beginning of each school year. But just what should be included in an IEP? In addition, how can the "least restrictive environment" defined by the act be assured, and what are the implications of the act for principals?

An IEP, Dougherty responds, should have several elements. The student's present level of educational performance should be described, including "academic achievement, social adaptation, prevocational and vocational skills, psychomotor skills, and self-help skills." A statement of annual goals, along with a statement of "short-term instructional objectives," should describe the objectives of the student's program and the steps for getting there. Finally, the IEP should describe specific educational services needed by the student, including all special educational services and materials, the dates special services will begin and end, a list of individuals responsible for the IEP, criteria and evaluation procedures that will be used to determine whether the objectives are being met, justification for the child's placement, and a description of the child's participation in the regular program.

Assuring the least restrictive environment is accomplished by first assuming that each child will be in the regular educational program, and then adding special materials and services as they are deemed necessary. Most mainstreamed children end up in the "middle area" between regular and special education classrooms, perhaps attending regular classes in some areas and receiving special instruction in others.

The implications for the principal are formidable. "It becomes the responsibility of the school principal to see that each child is educated in as equitable a fashion as possible," says Dougherty. Thus, the principal must see that teachers receive "intensive and

2 practical developmental assistance" in instructing handicapped children, that parents are well informed, that handicapped students are not harassed by other students, and that handicapped students are properly oriented in the school.

4

Heron, Timothy E. "Maintaining the Mainstreamed Child in the Regular Classroom: The Decision-Making Process." *Journal of Learning Disabilities,* 11, 4 (April 1978), pp. 210-16. EJ 186 801.

This article demonstrates that mainstreaming is not an either-or proposition—either a child can adjust in a regular classroom or not. Heron catalogs a wide variety of strategies available to teachers and administrators when a mainstreamed child presents a problem (academic or social).

The alternatives Heron presents are broken down into those aimed at the child, the normal peer group, and the teacher.

Among the suggestions for changing problem behavior that are aimed directly at the child, several have to do with personalizing his or her environment. This could entail providing a model to imitate, changing a seating assignment to increase teacher-student communication, or arranging peer tutoring.

For academic problems, the child may need to gain basic skills through individualized instruction, peer tutoring, or programmed instruction. Finally, various behavior modification techniques can be tried.

The next step is to look at peer relationships and improve them by teacher modeling, discussion, integrating working groups, rewarding appropriate interaction (such as with more free time for the class), or reinforcing such interaction by a few target students.

Finally, teacher behavior can be improved by providing feedback, modeling, or inservice training. Heron warns, however, against forced training, saying teachers should determine whether they could benefit and which skills to improve.

All the suggestions are included because of proved effectiveness in previous studies, wide applicability, and lasting effects, according to Heron.

5

Heron, Timothy E. "Punishment: A Review of the Literature with Implications for the Teacher of Mainstreamed Children." *Journal of Special Education,* 12, 3 (Fall 1978), pp. 243-52. EJ 188 802.

Any number of punishment systems can be effective in reducing disruptive classroom behavior, Heron points out in this review of studies involving both exceptional and normal children. Equally important, however, are his warnings about the possible side effects of certain kinds of punishments. Needed, therefore, are guidelines to govern the use of appropriate disciplinary techniques.

Studies have shown three major types of punishment to be effective: aversive stimulus (a reprimand, for instance), withdrawal of a positive reinforcer (free time), and withdrawal of an opportunity to gain reinforcement (time-out). One interesting study in a regular classroom showed a "soft" reprimand, delivered privately to a student, to be more effective than a "loud" public one.

But punishment can only suppress unwanted behaviors, Heron points out, not teach new ones. And it may have such side effects as increasing avoidance or emotional behaviors, suppressing activity, creating aversion to the classroom, developing a tolerance for punishment requiring greater and greater intensity, having a "spill-over" effect on other children, reinforcing the already low self-concept of many mainstreamed children, and providing a negative model the other children may imitate when dealing with these students.

Although punishment may be needed, it must be coupled with reinforcement, Heron says. Peer rejection and negative interactions with teachers are the traditional lot of learning disabled children. "The classroom teacher will have to come to realize that a positive reinforcing environment is essential if their abilities are to be enhanced," he says.

6

Johnson, Alex B., and Gold, Veronica. "The Principal's Role in Implementing Public Law 94-142." *Clearing House,* 54, 1 (September 1980), pp. 32-35. EJ 231 412.

Public Law 94-142, also known as the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, requires that all handicapped children be provided with access to a free and appropriate public education. Furthermore, the act dictates that handicapped children be integrated, or "mainstreamed," into regular classrooms and other educational settings "to the maximum extent appropriate."

Unfortunately, say Johnson and Gold, most principals have little education or experience in special education and thus "are often uninformed about the needs and possibilities of handicapped youngsters." Moreover, P.L. 94-142 "fails to outline the extent to which the building principal is to participate in the education of handicapped children." To help clear up some of this confusion and to give principals some guidance, the authors here explain the principal's role in the implementation of mainstreaming and outline strategies for facilitating teachers' acceptance of handicapped children in their classrooms.

The first step in mainstreaming handicapped students is to locate them. The principal can aid this process by asking newspapers and television and radio stations to announce special screening programs. Contacting doctors and social service agencies can further help identify handicapped students.

Once located, each handicapped student must be provided with access to a range of educational placements ranging from "least restrictive—the regular classroom—to most restrictive—the special class." Intermediate placements—such as part-time participation in regular classes or the provision of supplementary services—may be appropriate for some children. The principal must coordinate these mainstreaming efforts between regular and special education programs and must see that an "individualized educational program" is developed for each handicapped student.

In addition to these responsibilities, the principal should help teachers adjust to mainstreaming. Johnson and Gold discuss the reasons for teacher resistance to mainstreaming and suggest a comprehensive staff development program and several educational program modifications to help teachers adjust.

7 **Jones, Reginald L., and others.** "Evaluating Mainstreaming Programs: Models, Caveats, Considerations, and Guidelines." *Exceptional Children,* 44, 8 (May 1978), pp. 588-601. EJ 184 928.

Evaluation of mainstreaming programs, required both by law and common sense, is a complex process requiring the consideration of many issues, say the authors of this thorough discussion. To be useful to decision-makers, evaluations must resolve the problems of earlier studies and confront new questions.

After describing some past studies and discussing various important types of data that should be included in mainstreaming appraisals, the authors present an exhaustive set of guidelines that designers of evaluations may find helpful both in structuring their task of information gathering and in preparing their final reports to make them most useful to the readers.

The guidelines, which are also helpful in assessing evaluation reports, recommend inclusion of such details as the names and addresses of program planners and evaluators (for further inquiry) and the purpose of the evaluation. The guidelines also suggest the broad range of data that should be evaluated, such as descriptions of the mainstreaming model used, the subjects of the study (both special and regular students), and the school, the community, and its political realities. Information on instructional quality, academic achievement, attitudes, student adjustment, social acceptance, attendance, cost effectiveness, and more should also be provided.

The authors argue for a variety of methods in evaluations, ranging from statistics to observations, questionnaires, and standard tests to descriptions and analyses of individual cases. In discussing the assessment of individualized education plans they point out the dearth of adequate measures, backed up by research, to gauge achievement and pinpoint its causes. They suggest teachers should be encouraged to share their observations, even hunches, about what works and what doesn't.

"Teachers can play a critically important role in the evaluation of mainstreaming. It is the teachers, not the evaluators, who are in constant contact with the children, materials and daily problems that arise," the authors argue.

8 **Klein, Nancy K.** "Least Restrictive Alternative: An Educational Analysis." *Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded,* 13, 1 (February 1978), pp. 102-14. EJ 183 461.

The schools, the system, and the attitudes of parents and professionals all must change fundamentally to implement a true least-restrictive alternative for each child, Klein says.

Beginning with a brief history of the educational philosophies that have molded American schools, Klein indicts the essentialist model that has held sway in recent decades for shutting out whole categories of children from mainstream education and necessitating the rise of special education as a dumping ground for them.

"It is clearly unjust and certainly immoral to continue to use assessment procedures which identify the child as the root of the problem, simultaneously condoning existing school practices," she states.

In place of an educational model that offers few choices to parents and children and aims only to instill cognitive skills in "willing learners," Klein argues for maximum choice for all students, equality of educational experiences, and program decisions made by those closest to the child, including special and regular educators, parents, and the child himself or herself.

Klein presents a framework for analyzing the concept of least-restrictive alternative, including such elements as social and physical integration, instructional interactions, and ecology of the classroom situation. Because tradition, standardization in schools, and entrenched attitudes all mitigate against the changes needed, Klein proposes a massive program of reeducation for all involved in education.

Parents and children, she argues, should be able to choose from various alternatives in areas such as philosophical model, curriculum, and instruction to find the most suitable option for each child.

"If parents are to make informed choices they need education so that they fully understand the elements of each choice, possible comparative consequences, and methods of evaluating their child's progress. Parents can become informed decision makers whose input is required as an integral part of educational planning for children."

9 **Mandell, Colleen J., and Strain, Phillip S.** "An Analysis of Factors Related to the Attitudes of Regular Classroom Teachers toward Mainstreaming Mildly Handicapped Children." *Contemporary Educational Psychology,* 3, 2 (April 1978), pp. 154-62. EJ 182 479.

If mainstreaming is to be successfully implemented in existing school systems, a positive attitude on the part of the regular class teachers who receive these children is essential. Mandell and Strain discuss several factors that were found to correlate significantly with such an outlook and might be used to predict both which teachers will be positive and what kinds of school environments encourage that attitude.

Number of years of teaching experience correlated negatively with a positive attitude toward mainstreaming, Mandell and Strain found, whereas previous experiences such as courses on diagnosing learning and behavior problems, special education teaching experience, inservice programs, and the number of university courses on exceptional children were significant positive predictors.

The three positively related environmental factors—team teaching, presence of a resource teacher, and class size of twenty-five to twenty-seven—are all, the authors point out, easy to manipulate to ensure the success of a mainstreaming program.

Other factors, including the positive attitudes of principals and special education teachers, did not correlate with positive attitudes in teachers, but the authors suggest this may change in the future.

The negative correlation may be due to the traditional isolation of special education teachers and the separate functions carried out by teachers and principals independently in regard to mainstreaming. But "implicit in the federal guidelines is that placements are to be made by a team which would include the principal, special educator, and regular teacher. As a result of such a process, the traditional communication channels would become obsolete."

10 **National Education Association.** *Education for All Handicapped Children: Consensus, Conflict, and Challenge.* Washington, D.C.: Teacher Rights Division, 1978. 47 pages. ED 157 214.

Anticipating the problems and changes P.L. 94-142 will entail, an NEA panel held public hearings in three locations. The panel visited forty-three schools and heard from parents, teachers, administrators, and others on both the positive and negative aspects of such legislation.

The panel discovered support for the intent of the law and many problems in its implementation. This report details those problems and lists recommendations on everything from class size to transportation.

The panel chose Des Moines (Iowa), Savannah (Georgia), and North Santa Barbara County (California) for the survey, based on such factors as proportion of minority students, balance of urban and rural settings, and experience with mainstreaming laws. The surveyors included representatives of the national associations of elementary and secondary principals and the deaf, the Council for Exceptional Children, and parent advocacy groups, as well as NEA members.

This readable report, peppered with quotes from parents and professionals, provides a mix of anecdotal evidence and broader discussion of areas of conflict.

The panel found that P.L. 94-142 will require dramatic changes many public schools are not prepared to make, financially and, in some cases, bureaucratically or attitudinally. One problem, for example, lies in the fact that educational training institutions are not coordinating new training programs with the public schools. The most prevalent type of inservice training—"the fragmented one-day, half-day, or two-day meetings and workshops, having little continuity of purpose and content"—teachers consider the least helpful.

The panel recommends the creation of more practical and relevant preservice and inservice training, teacher centers, and continuing inservice training by resource teachers.

Other recommendations cover such areas as time, paperwork, accountability, and child identification, including migrant and other isolated groups.

11 **Orelove, Fred P.** "Administering Education for the Severely Handicapped after P.L. 94-142." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 59, 10 (June 1978), pp. 699-702. EJ 181 510.

Mandatory public education may be in everyone's best ultimate interests, but in the transitional period administrators are faced with a raft of problems. The perils include the threat of lawsuits stemming from noncompliance with the many requirements of P.L. 94-142 and the response of anxious parents of handicapped and nonhandicapped children alike.

Orelove gives an overview of these problems where administrators can be especially vigilant of the concerns of students, parents, professionals, and the community, but he concludes "no task is insurmountable."

Some school districts began educating exceptional children several years ago, he points out. "Having weathered the initial tribulations and the aftershocks, they now handle the daily affairs routinely."

Some new considerations administrators must deal with are teaching life skills in natural—nonschool—environments, giving relief to teachers who may find their traditional free times being taken up teaching eating and social skills during lunch and recess periods, coping with the lack of qualified special teachers by providing more inservice training, and helping professionals from many disciplines develop a smooth team delivery of services to handicapped children.

Orelove warns that administrators may be liable to lawsuits in the next decade for failure to live up to the due process provisions of the law or on quality issues: adults conceivably will sue because of failings in the special education they received as children.

12 **Paul, James L.; Turnbull, Ann P.; and Cruickshank, William M.** "Mainstreaming: A Practical Guide." 1977. 147 pages. ED 157 606.

The promise of this book's title is lived up to with voluminous detail on the planning, training for, and implementing of main-

streaming, down to such practical guidelines as not letting meetings run overlong.

No treatise on theory, this volume begins with the assumption that mainstreaming is coming and that its essence is "the view that schools are made for students and not students for schools." Although the authors call mainstreaming a "system problem" involving all educational levels, their focus is on the local school.

Long, careful planning is advocated, and the authors break the process into phases. They offer advice on assembling a committee and making it representative of all interested groups, preparing staff, parents, and community for the new idea, identifying problems, and nurturing communication.

The authors devote a chapter each to inservice and preservice teacher education—matters of great importance, they say, to the success of a mainstreaming program. Another key element greatly emphasized is leadership in both planning and implementation. "The principal is the educational leader who must provide the necessary guidance and direction," the authors say.

13 **Ritter, David R.** "Surviving in the Regular Classroom: A Follow-Up of Mainstreamed Children with Learning Disabilities." *Journal of School Psychology,* 16, 3 (February 1978), pp. 253-56. EJ 188 395.

Most discussions of mainstreaming assume that children coming into regular classrooms from more restrictive situations will need some degree of supplemental service in addition to the general curriculum. A Vermont study on learning-disabled youngsters confirms this view.

A group of twenty children were tested for reading, math, and spelling ability three times: prior to a year in a special learning disability program, at the end of that year, and after the following year in a regular classroom. During the latter year, they received supplemental instruction in reading and math three times per week in half-hour sessions.

The children were able to maintain learning gains in reading and math during the mainstreamed year comparable to those made in the special program, but showed a significant decrease in gains in spelling.

Reading supplementation provided activities that focused on each child's observed difficulties in classroom instruction, review, clarification and repetition of class lessons, and rehearsal for future classroom group instruction. Math supplementation reviewed the concepts from the regular program and reinforced them with many game-oriented tasks.

Ritter notes that the results of this study imply that learning disabled children may need extra help if they are to maintain academic progress when moved into less restrictive programs not specially designed for them.

14 **Sapon-Shevin, Mara.** "Another Look at Mainstreaming: Exceptionality, Normality, and the Nature of Difference." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 60, 2 (October 1978), pp. 119-21. EJ 188 651.

Overattention to the many technical and administrative problems involved in mainstreaming or viewing it in isolation from other educational issues may cause us to miss the point of this whole exercise: improving education for all children.

If mainstreaming can be considered as "a conceptual and ethical issue," says Sapon-Shevin, the solutions might "be used as a catalyst for significant change in school and society."

Why not improve the whole system, she asks, instead of forcing the "special" child to integrate into the "regular" mainstream, which automatically dooms a certain percentage to failure with its competition model? Sapon-Shevin argues against the exceptional-normal labels and the tendency to stress universal sameness, which implies differences among people are negative.

"Mainstreaming must be conceived of, not as changing the special child so that he will fit back into the unchanged regular classroom, but rather as changing the nature of the regular classroom so that it is more accommodating to all children," the author states.

This should be accomplished not by totally individualized learning, as some opponents of competition advocate, but by cooperation, making learning a sharing of individual strengths. Thus, "a larger number and greater magnitude of differences could be accommodated because all children in a class would not be required or expected to be functioning at an identical level."

Such a model could ease the burden on teachers by using the talents of class members for learning and ensure success in education for all the children, including those "normal" ones who would fail on a competitive grading.

15 **Sowers, Ganelda H.** "Observations of a Primary School Principal after Four Years of Experience with Mainstreaming." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Toronto, March 1978. 11 pages. ED 153 342.

The news is good: not only did exceptional students adjust well to mainstreaming in the first four years after it was instituted in this Rowan County, North Carolina, school in 1973, but all other students benefited as well.

Sowers describes her school and its population, the process of deciding on mainstreaming and preparing teachers and other staff for the change, and their extensive inservice training.

Because of this training, Sowers says, teachers benefit all pupils by being more flexible, stressing positive self-concepts and responsibility, and instituting individualized learning not only for mainstreamed children, but others, too.

"Goals have been set for other pupils as well as individual educational plans for the EMR pupils. A wide variety of materials are constructed for use in the classroom. Individualization gives each child the attention and training he needs at the level on which he is working," Sowers writes.

Peer acceptance of the special needs children is high, she says, and other children even request help from the EMR resource teacher and consider it "a real treat to be invited by an EMR pupil to accompany him to the resource room on occasion." Mainstreaming

6 has also "created a new and exciting relationship between 'special' education teachers and classroom teachers. They are very supportive of each other. A new concept of team teaching has emerged," she says.

The educable mentally retarded pupils have made progress both socially and academically, she reports. They benefit from better modeling and from a "family grouping" system. The groups are comprised of six to eight children who give each other encouragement, support, and experience in accomplishing tasks, accepting others, and developing self-discipline.

In short, Sowers concludes, mainstreaming is one way to "set free the mind of each child who enters the classroom so that he may understand as well as to know."

Administrators and the Courts

16 **Alexander, Kern.** "Administrative Prerogative: Restraints of Natural Justice on Student Discipline." *Journal of Law and Education,* 7, 3 (July 1978), pp. 331-58. EJ 183 307.

Would a student accused of stealing have had the same procedural rights in the 1880s as he does today? Alexander discusses one such student theft case of 1887, describes the evolution of due process requirements since then, and concludes that if the same student had been tried today, he would have many more due process rights.

School boards and administrators have always had to function in "discretionary or quasi-judicial" capacities, making decisions having profound impacts on the lives of children. Traditionally, the courts of both Britain and the United States have been reluctant to intervene in this area to determine if school officials are acting appropriately.

More recently, however, the courts have acted to limit this "unbridled discretion" of school authorities by laying down guidelines designed to ensure fundamental fairness for students. In Britain, the courts' interventions are based on the concept of "natural justice," and in the United States on the similar concept of due process. In both countries, the new legal precedents "combine to place new and extra statutory requirements on administrative disciplinary actions which educational administration must accommodate if students are to be given maximum legal fairness and equity."

Alexander traces the origins of the concept of natural justice back to the *Magna Carta* and outlines in some detail its development since then. The product of this indepth inquiry is a set of guidelines that suggest "the administrator's boundaries of discretion" in student discipline cases. The rudiments of "fair play" are outlined, followed by the requirements of due process as defined by British and American courts. Three requirements for an unbiased hearing are presented, followed by twelve requirements for "fairness" in a student discipline hearing.

17 **Bright, Myron H.** "The Constitution, the Judges, and the School Administrator." *NASSP Bulletin,* 63, 424 (February 1979), pp. 74-83. EJ 196 061.

Bright opens this amusing but informative article by recounting a dream he had of his distinguished principal of forty years ago. "Is it true," his former principal booms, "that federal judges are telling school administrators how to run the schools?" Bright's answer to Principal Boardman is this article, which discusses the current legal problems of the schools, particularly as Bright has seen them from the bench of the United States Court of Appeals.

Two cases decided in the 1960s "made it clear that the Constitution, not the decisions of school officials, was the supreme law of the schoolgrounds." In the *Tinker* case, decided by the Supreme Court in 1969, students were suspended for wearing black armbands in protest of United States involvement in Vietnam. The Court—deciding in favor of the students—ruled that students, too, are to be considered "persons" under the Constitution. They have fundamental rights that the school board cannot abridge. But the Supreme Court, notes Bright, has also repeatedly confirmed the authority of school officials "to prescribe and control conduct in the schools."

The 1960s also unleashed a storm of civil rights cases, many against school boards and administrators. As examples, Bright enumerates seven cases that came before his court, including cases dealing with length of hair, sex discrimination, and bases for teacher dismissal.

In addition to personal rights, states Bright, students and teachers have the protection of due process requirements. In brief, administrators must provide both students and teachers with a fair hearing before suspending or dismissing them, to protect their "liberty" and "property" interests.

18 **Clear, Delbert K.** "Negative Statements in Letters of Recommendation: From Defamation to Defense." *NASSP Bulletin,* 62, 422 (December 1978), pp. 34-43. EJ 192 368.

School administrators usually do one of two things when asked to write letters of recommendation: "they either say something good or they say nothing." Besides being professionally irresponsible, states Clear, this behavior is unnecessary, for it is quite possible to make negative recommendations "that are both educationally responsible *and* legally defensible." This excellent article shows how, using a simple checklist and an account of a court case to illustrate the legal principles involved.

If a defamation case is brought by a teacher against an administrator for statements made in letters or by other means, the first and best defense is that of truth. If the statements are substantially true, and can be proven so, the defense is complete. The "truth" questions in Clear's checklist ask the administrator if the statements are based on firsthand information, if the facts support "opinion inferences" made, if the facts are germane to the issue, and if emotional bias has been avoided.

Even if the truth test fails in a court case, school administrators are protected by a "conditional privilege" of immunity from negative statements they make in recommendations. This privilege may be lost, however, if it is abused.

Another series of questions in the checklist determines whether the privilege was abused: Were the statements made for a legitimate educational purpose, to an appropriate person, and did they contain only material relevant to the educational purpose? Are the statements believed to be true? Are there reasonable grounds for this belief? If any one of these tests fails, the administrator loses his privilege and can be held liable for defamatory remarks.

19 **Delon, Floyd G.** *School Officials and the Courts: Update 1979. ERS Monograph.* Arlington, Virginia: Educational Research Service, 1979. 98 pages. ED 176 406.

Does a school administrator have a right to a hearing when he or she is terminated? Is the school board's authority to transfer personnel restricted by constitutional provisions? Does a principal's search of a student based on information obtained from the police violate the Fourth Amendment?

These questions and ninety-seven others reviewed here have been decided by various state and federal courts between 1977 and 1979. Delon summarizes these court actions by presenting the question, the facts of the case, the court's decision, and a commentary for each case. The one hundred cases are divided into nine areas: school boards, finance, contracts, collective bargaining, administrators, teachers, pupils, torts, and religion.

Although a reading of this monograph can bring one quickly up-to-date on recent issues of litigation in education, Delon advises the reader to "avoid making sweeping generalizations" from the information presented. It is particularly important, Delon continues, "to note *which* court rendered the decision"; decisions made by federal district courts or state appellate courts can often be reversed by higher courts. In addition, state decisions may deal with statutes unique to that state.

To further enhance an understanding of the court cases presented, Delon briefly discusses the courts' approaches to constitutional questions, particularly those dealing with the First and Fourteenth Amendments. Individual rights, property and liberty interests, substantive due process, and equal protection are among the constitutional issues discussed.

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20 **Delon, Floyd G.** "Update on School Personnel and School District Immunity and Liability under Section 1983, Civil Rights Act of 1871." *Journal of Law and Education,* 8, 2 (April 1979), pp. 215-22. EJ 201 316.

In the past two decades, the Civil Rights Act of 1871 (42 U.S.C. Section 1983) has become "the most frequently used basis for challenging alleged unconstitutional acts of school board members and administrators," states Delon. Section 1983 reads in part: "Every person who . . . subjects . . . any citizen . . . to the deprivation of any rights, privileges, or immunities . . . shall be liable to the party injured." Delon here reviews recent court cases that "provide a more nearly complete construction of the statute," particularly those decisions dealing with the immunity and liability of school personnel.

Court decisions in the 1960s established that board members and administrators are considered "persons" under Section 1983 and thus are subject as individuals to the provisions of the statute. Neither common law nor statutory immunity prevents actions against board members or administrators.

However, individual officials retain immunity if they act in "good faith." According to a 1975 Supreme Court decision, school officials, to demonstrate good faith, must act without malice or ill will and must not violate the constitutional rights of individuals. The Supreme Court has also recently ruled that school districts can be considered as "persons" under Section 1983, but the impact of this decision, states Delon, "remains to be seen."

Recent Supreme Court decisions also address the issue of administrator liability for First and Fourteenth Amendment violations. Recent rulings based on the "absence of protected conduct" standard, states Delon, seem "to assure that employees and pupils cannot use the exercise of a constitutional right to tie the hands of school officials when legitimate reasons exist for dismissal or expulsion." Other decisions indicate that "procedural deficiencies that do not produce provable injury cannot result in sizable damage awards."

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21 **Gluckman, Ivan B.** "Legal Aspects of the Principal's Employment." Chapter 1 in *The School Principal and the Law,* edited by Ralph D. Stern. Topeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1978. 12 pages. ED 172 328.

The first principals were teachers of small schools who performed some administrative duties in addition to their regular teaching tasks. As schools grew, the principalship gradually became a distinct entity. But because of the origins of the principalship, states Gluckman, "principals are still not differentiated from teachers under the law of many states." This situation is gradually changing, however; as of Gluckman's writing, fifteen states provided the basic essentials of a legal identity for the principal.

Whether or not this legal identity exists, the principal is "generally recognized under the law as an employee of the school system rather than one of its officers." Employee status has generally been beneficial for principals, Gluckman points out, for most of the legal protections recently granted to teachers have been extended to principals as well.

For example, administrators are usually granted tenure "only by virtue of their status as teachers." Tenure gives principals certain due process rights and a measure of job security, but being defined on a par with teachers means that principals in some states can be transferred to the classroom without cause.

Even where no tenure statutes exist, principals have some job protection via their employment contracts. However, notes Gluckman, "like most contracts prepared by one party to an agreement, they provide minimal protection for the rights of the other party." Group contracts negotiated between administrator groups and school boards usually give the principal greater protection.

The principal also has the constitutional protections of due process. Again, classification as an employee appears to have an advantage: "to the extent that principals are regarded as administrators, their constitutional protection may be reduced." Gluckman also discusses the elimination of principals, particularly under the guise of "administrative reorganization."

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22 **Godek, Joseph.** "Prevention and Management of Sports Injuries—Questions about Liability." *NASSP Bulletin,* 65, 446 (September 1981), pp. 16-23. EJ 249 882.

"Do you mean to say, Mr. Smith, that you never bothered to check on the availability of a telephone for summoning assistance in case of serious injury?"

This embarrassing and potentially incriminating question could be asked of a well-intentioned and otherwise responsible coach or administrator in your school or district someday. To prevent this from occurring, school administrators should carefully plan for the prevention and care of sports injuries and should become well versed in the legal precedents and requirements that delineate both administrator responsibilities and potential liabilities in sports injury cases.

Godek's first piece of advice is to "understand the legal rules of the game." All personnel involved in school-sponsored athletics should "be aware of accepted standards of performance for the prevention and management of injuries." Then, appropriate procedures should be established for the prevention of injuries, the care of injuries, and the return of injured athletes to participation.

To prevent charges of negligence, administrators should make sure the medical examinations for sports participation are adequate in the eyes of the court, that equipment is utilized safely and meets accepted standards of performance, that the playing environment is as safe as possible, and that coaches know how to modify activity according to conditions of heat and humidity. In addition, arrangements for health care delivery should be made before any team starts practice, teams should have specific plans for dealing with injuries, and coaches should be qualified in first aid, but should not perform acts they are not qualified to perform.

Godek elaborates on these and other recommendations and concludes that "a degree of risk is a realistic part of athletics. Schools must, however, be certain that the risks associated with athletic participation are kept at an acceptable level."

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23 **King, Richard A.** "The Principal and the Law." *Administrator's Notebook,* 28, 2 (1979-80), pp. 1-4. EJ 221 451.

In the past few decades, numerous judicial decisions and legislative mandates have altered the principal's role. Today, says King, "the role and legal status of the principal are clearly in a state of flux." To help clarify the current legal definition of the principalship, King here examines the litigation and legislation that have recently affected the duties and responsibilities, due process rights, collective bargaining rights, and certification requirements of the principal.

There is no consensus among states concerning the definition of the principalship. In response to court and legislative mandates, however, the principal's role has recently become more clearly defined in many state statutes. Between 1971 and 1976, reports King, the number of states defining by statute the legal status of the principal rose from eight to twenty-four, according to surveys by the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

In certain states, notably Florida, the legislature has sought to clarify the role of the principal by shifting primary decision-making authority and responsibility from the central office to the school site. Although such a shift of power—usually referred to as "school site management"—has not been mandated by any state legislature, several legislative acts reviewed here by King lean in that direction.

In some areas, the courts have been closely involved in clarifying the principal's role. The constitutional rights of students, for example, have been the subject of numerous important court cases, several of which are reviewed here. The courts have limited the principal's "personal discretion" in student discipline matters, but at the same time have reaffirmed the principal's "authority to control student behavior."

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24 **National Association of Secondary School Principals.** *Child Abuse and Neglect. A Legal Memorandum.* Reston, Virginia: 1980. 9 pages. ED 196 128.

The National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect estimates that there are about one million cases of physical child abuse or neglect per year in the United States. These cases are *not*—as is commonly believed—limited to very young children. Recent studies estimate that over half of these abused or neglected children are of school age.

Prior to 1960, no clear legal descriptions of school personnel responsibility for reporting child abuse and neglect existed. But between 1963 and 1967, all fifty states adopted "reporting statutes" that require school personnel, among others, to "notify public authorities of suspected child maltreatment." This memorandum reviews these reporting statutes, discusses the responsibilities and liabilities of principals under the statutes, and recommends several administrative actions for building awareness of the statutes among school staff.

Under most state statutes, principals can be charged with negli-

gence if they fail to report cases of suspected abuse or neglect. So far, physicians rather than principals have been "the essential target of suits for failing to report a suspected case of child abuse." But under the legal concept of "foreseeability," the principal who does not take "reasonable preventive measures, including instructions of his/her staff on the reporting of child abuse and neglect," can be held liable for negligence. Staff members should be informed of their reporting responsibilities through inservice programs, the faculty handbook, and faculty meetings, this memorandum suggests.

Principals needn't worry about reporting cases that later cannot be proved. A federal law requires state reporting statutes to "include provisions giving immunity from prosecution to persons reporting child neglect or abuse in good faith." Principals are also in little danger of violating confidentiality of records laws, because the federal privacy act allows the release of records when the health or safety of a student is at stake. Included are two tables outlining reporting statutes, immunity provisions, and reporting procedures on a state-by-state basis.

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25 **Panush, Louis.** "The Principal in Court." *NASSP Bulletin,* 62, 414 (January 1978), pp. 115-21. EJ 171 523.

Not so long ago, states Panush, school principals were only rarely involved as plaintiffs or defendants in court cases. Today, however, principals are being challenged in court for a variety of reasons. Panush, former principal of Western High School in Detroit, has himself been caught in this rising tide of school litigation and here describes his personal experiences in two cases in which he was involved.

In the first case—involving search and seizure—Panush was a "complaining witness." A teacher observed a student selling pills in his class and reported the incident to the boy's counselor, who then informed Panush. The next morning, Panush called the student into his office and, with a security guard and the counselor present, had the boy empty his pockets, revealing a bottle of LSD. Panush called the police, who arrested the boy, and a trial was eventually begun.

After numerous attempts by the boy's lawyer to suppress the LSD as evidence because it was obtained by "illegal search," a judge found the boy guilty. The judge stated "that the principal had a duty to protect the student (defendant) and other students entrusted to his supervision against the dangers of drug abuse; and that he acted reasonably and legally."

In the second case—involving student injury—Panush was a defendant. A student was injured in the school during a seemingly unprovoked attack by other students. Sixteen months later, the boy and his father sued both Panush and the board of education for negligence. Panush based his defense on his "reasonable efforts" to prevent such incidents (which were rare) and on his immunity as part of the school district. After nearly five years of litigation—which is described in some detail—Panush was finally cleared.

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26 **Piele, Philip K., editor.** *The Yearbook of School Law, 1981.* Topeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1981. 350 pages. ED 208 580.

A state law that allows religious materials to be posted in school classrooms may be in violation of the First Amendment's establishment clause. So determined the Supreme Court in a case summarized in this volume describing and explaining hundreds of 1980 education cases. In this case, a Kentucky law permitted the posting of the Ten Commandments in the classroom. The state legislature alleged it had a "secular intention" in allowing the Commandments to be posted since they are precursor to today's laws. The Court, however, in a five-to-four ruling, found that the Ten Commandments are "undeniably a sacred text" and that merely posting them served no secular educational function but rather the religious function of inducing children to "venerate" the Commandments.

Published annually for the last thirty-one years, this yearbook summarizes and analyzes state appellate court and federal court decisions that affect schools. Issues dealt with include educational governance, employees, bargaining, torts, pupils, finance, and property.

Other cases cited in the yearbook illustrate the rights of school districts when dismissing teachers for reduction in force. According to a Massachusetts case, since state legislation did not require a hearing when dismissing a teacher because of declining enrollment, the usual dismissal hearing could be dispensed with. A similar state law in Ohio was upheld by that state's court, which held that the board did not violate the right to due process by merely suspending a teacher without the usual due process procedures when the suspension was due to reduction in force.

The volume not only summarizes education cases but explains their implications and importance. It should be extremely helpful to administrators as both a reference book and a means of keeping abreast of the latest opinions in all critical areas of school law.

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27 **Popham, W. James, and Lindheim, Elaine.** "Implications of a Landmark Ruling on Florida's Minimum Competency Test." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 63, 1 (September 1981), pp. 18-20. EJ 249 911.

A "fair" competency test, according to a May 1981 ruling of the U.S. Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals, is one that measures what has actually been taught. Moreover, using a test that is *not* fair "to determine who graduates is a violation of the equal protection and due process clauses of the U.S. Constitution."

Because this ruling will not be appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court, say Popham and Lindheim, it "will play an important role in future lawsuits challenging minimum competency tests." In this article, the authors describe the Florida case that led to this ruling, discuss the implications for administrators in all states with minimum competency laws, and suggest actions that administrators can take now to prepare for future cases of this kind.

The *intent* of a school's instructional program, as described by course objectives, is not necessarily identical with the *reality* of what is actually taught. The courts are interested in the match between what is tested by competency exams and what is actually taught. Only when the match is good can "fairness" be established.

But how can administrators prove that their competency tests are fair? The authors suggest that administrators start collecting data *now* for the "almost certain legal challenge" to come. Two types of data can be collected: instructional materials, such as textbooks, syllabi, and lesson plans; and records of actual classroom transactions, such as electronic recordings of lessons or teacher and pupil reports. The first type of data could be readily and economically collected. The second type would be much more difficult to collect, but would be more compelling in court.

Once collected, how should the data be presented in court? Should educators "present unappraised evidence to the court's scrutiny," or should they have it appraised prior to submittal by an independent expert? The authors again present arguments on both sides and then go on to consider other issues that will soon face administrators attempting to defend the fairness of their competency exams.

28

Stern, Ralph D. "The Principal and Tort Liability." Chapter 10 in *The School Principal and the Law,* edited by Ralph D. Stern. Topeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1978. 16 pages. ED 172 337.

A tort, according to a dictionary definition, is "a wrongful act, not including a breach of contract or trust, which results in injury to another's person, property, reputation, or the like, and for which the injured party is entitled to compensation." The most common tort cases brought against principals, says Stern, concern "the determination of whether a principal is legally responsible for physical injuries suffered by a student," in particular injuries resulting from negligence, referred to as "unintentional torts."

It is impossible, of course, for the principal to prevent all injuries to students. The courts recognize this and will not, in general, hold a principal liable as long as "reasonable and appropriate precautions are taken" to prevent student injuries. The yardstick the courts usually use is the foresight and behavior of "a reasonably prudent person."

Defamation, another tort the principal may be involved in, involves "injuring another's good name or reputation." In many cases, the principal may believe he or she has been defamed by some other citizen who criticizes his or her performance. There is little redress in such cases, for the United States Supreme Court, quoted by Stern, recognizes a "profound national commitment" to open debate that "may well include vehement, caustic, and sometimes unpleasantly sharp attacks on government and public officials."

In cases brought against the principal for defamation, says Stern, the principal is usually safe unless the statements made were knowingly false or malicious in nature. Principals also have a "conditional privilege" of immunity against defamation suits, which "is intended to permit government officials to perform their duties without undue fear of being held liable for what they write or say." Stern also briefly discusses tort liabilities resulting from the deprivation of constitutional rights.

29

Strahan, Richard D. "Managing a School's Fiscal and Physical Resources." Chapter 11 in *The School Principal and the Law,* edited by Ralph D. Stern. Topeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1978. 13 pages. ED 172 338.

To be a good instructional leader, it is essential that the principal also be proficient in the management of the school's fiscal and physical resources. In addition to basic management skills, the principal should have full knowledge of his or her legal responsibilities in all areas of school operation. To help principals acquire this knowledge, Strahan here examines the "statutory and case law guidelines that are vital to good building and program management."

Most school districts have policy statements that impose responsibility for the school's property on the building administrator. On assuming a principalship, Strahan advises, the new principal "should satisfy himself or herself that the entire inventory of school property he or she is assuming is intact." Strahan suggests that the principal insist on an internal audit of all school accounts, equipment, textbooks, and supplies before signing any document that acknowledges appointment and control.

The principal is also usually liable for managing cocurricular funds, even though the funds are not generated by taxation. Strahan discusses several cases in which principals were charged with incompetence because of their "improper management of extraclass funds." An added benefit of adept management of various funds, Strahan points out, is that it generates confidence in the principal's management abilities.

Another potential area of principal liability is in the purchase of class rings, class and individual photographs, caps and gowns, and so forth. Strahan notes that "the principal may be personally liable for such contracts unless the specific fund to which he may look for payment is clearly written into the contract." Also discussed are student savings programs, property loss through vandalism and burglary, and statutory prohibitions against influencing school purchases.

30

Wetterer, Charles M. "Emergency Situations Involving Alleged Student Crime." Chapter 8 in *The School Principal and the Law,* edited by Ralph D. Stern. Topeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1978. 25 pages. ED 172 335.

Emergency situations involving suspected or alleged student crimes demand immediate action by the principal. Common sense, discretion, and caution may seem to be all that are needed to deal with such incidents; but, cautions Wetterer in this excellent article, "there are special problems—legal, physical and social—which

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surround such emergencies."

It is essential, then, that a principal anticipate such situations and have a general strategy prepared for each type of emergency. To help in this planning, Wetterer here presents a discussion—with numerous examples and suggestions—of the legal ramifications of the principal's actions regarding bombs and bomb threats, false fire alarms, searches and seizures, and police investigations in the schools.

Often, the principal finds himself or herself in a "no win" situation. For example, if a principal decides to search a student or the student's locker, he may have to defend himself against claims of illegal search. If the principal decides not to search, however, he may be accused "of civil or even criminal negligence." The legal precedents, which the author outlines, are probably the best guides for "reasonable" principal behavior.

The complexity of what the principal must know to avoid charges of wrongdoing or negligence is further illustrated by the principal's interaction with the police. In most instances, "the principal may deal with minor criminal acts committed in his school and decide on suitable punishment for the offender." However, once the principal realizes that the crime is of a serious nature, it is his duty to call the police and refrain from further questioning of the student. The principal now must behave as the protector of the student in his "in loco parentis" role.

Classroom Discipline

31 **Brodinsky, Ben.** *Student Discipline: Problems and Solutions. AASA Critical Issues Report.* Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1980. 81 pages. ED 198 206.

If you are looking for a treasure chest of practical and usable ideas on student discipline, this AASA Critical Issues Report is it. Author Brodinsky covers the topic from A to Z and sprinkles his clear prose with numerous case studies and valuable "how to" hints.

The information presented in this comprehensive publication was gathered primarily from a survey of over 2,000 of AASA's 18,000 members. Additional information was derived from interviews with one hundred school administrators in various parts of the country and from over twenty national, state, and regional agencies with interests in student discipline.

An initial chapter provides an overview of the report, emphasizes the importance of the principal in student discipline, and discusses the critical role of superintendents and school boards in controlling student behavior. "All measures that educators use with regard to student behavior," Brodinsky points out, "fit into one of three categories: *punitive, controlling,* or *developmental."* The most promising strategies may be the developmental measures, for they are designed to *prevent* unacceptable behavior through curriculum revision, improved instruction, student activities, inservice education, and other means.

The second chapter is an alphabetically arranged compilation of useful ideas and practices that can serve as a quick reference for unfamiliar terms. Subsequent chapters detail school board policies on discipline, student conduct codes, student handbooks, student and parent involvement in discipline, useful approaches for classroom teachers, inservice education for teachers, curriculum improvement as a means of combatting misbehavior, vandalism and violence, smoking, inschool suspension, corporal punishment, and suspension and expulsion.

32 **Canter, Lee.** "Taking Charge of Student Behavior." *National Elementary Principal,* 58, 4 (June 1979), pp. 33-36, 41. EJ 203 097.

Discipline is a problem in today's schools, says Canter, because "teachers simply were not trained to deal with the behavior problems today's students present." One solution is to provide teachers with a sound training program in student management, such as the "Assertive Discipline Program" that Canter's educational consulting firm has developed.

Often, teachers are ineffective classroom managers because they lack the confidence necessary to "lay down the law in their classrooms," particularly with problem students. A host of misconceptions allows teachers to believe that some students are unable to behave. Yet Canter states bluntly that "all students can behave appropriately at school," despite neglectful parents, a bad neighborhood, or an educational handicap. The first step, then, toward assertive discipline is "for teachers to develop higher expectations of their own ability to deal with *all* students."

This kind of confidence can be gained by implementing the several disciplining guidelines outlined in this article. First, the teacher must learn to clearly communicate his or her expectations to the students regarding exactly what is and what is not allowed. The teacher must also set up a "systematic discipline plan" so that students know exactly what to expect if they misbehave one or more times. The key here is the consistency with which the rules of this plan are implemented. At the same time, appropriate behavior should be systematically rewarded with praise, other small rewards, or sending positive notes home.

Another important aspect of an assertive discipline program is its coordination with both the principal and the parents. Parents should be sent a copy of the discipline plan, and the principal and teacher should decide in advance what will be done with students sent to the principal's office.

33 **Duke, Daniel L.** "Making School Discipline Policy in the Eighties: Options, Illusions, and Dreams." *Contemporary Education,* 52, 1 (Fall 1980), pp. 24-29. EJ 237 733.

"When I study a school or school system that is experiencing disciplinary difficulties," Duke states, "I concentrate on certain critical aspects of the decision-making process." In particular, Duke focuses on what he terms "options, illusions, and dreams."

Most school policy-makers see five primary options for improving school discipline: increasing rules and making punishments more severe, improving classroom management training for teachers, allowing disruptive youth to leave school more easily, improving campus security, and cooperating more closely with juvenile courts. Although these options seem realistic enough, they are fraught with unrealistic assumptions, which Duke exposes as "illusions."

Instead of concentrating on these weak options, Duke contends, educational policy-makers should focus on "dreams"—options that "may seem impractical at first," but may ultimately "prove to be the key to success." In particular, educators should consider the reorganization of schools, changes in public attitudes toward the schools, and changes in society's "opportunity structure."

One organizational change that Duke suggests is the revision of procedures by which teachers are recruited and rewarded. "Urban schools need a special kind of teacher," says Duke, teachers who are not afraid to innovate or face the dangers of change and student aggression. "Such people exist," and administrators should make strong efforts to hire them. Other changes that would facilitate the work of these teachers include higher salaries for urban teachers, smaller class sizes, more personalized instruction for problem students, and alterations in seniority policy.

For these organization changes to take effect, the public's hostile attitude toward the schools must be changed. Duke recommends an increased dialogue between schools and citizens to debunk the myth that schools can "work miracles that other institutions (including the 'family') have failed to achieve." Duke's final "dream" is to make the opportunity structure in the nation more just so that disenchanted youth can be drawn away from crime.

34 **ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.** *Classroom Discipline.* Research Action Brief Number 5. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1979. 4 pages. ED 173 898.

As many educators know, the disciplining of adolescents is often more difficult than the disciplining of younger children. For this reason, it seems, few researchers have chosen to focus on the area of adolescent discipline. Of the research that has been done in this area, most has concentrated on the use of classical behavior modification techniques to control "inappropriate" behaviors. But there have also been encouraging results from other, more "humanistic" approaches to the discipline problem.

Behavior modification techniques are difficult to apply to teenagers because most adolescents are unresponsive to such rewards as teacher praise or the promise of good grades. But researchers have found one powerful motivator for this age group: "the promise of free time or early release from school." In one experiment, for example, completion of classwork earned tokens that were redeemable for early release on Fridays. The class rapidly began to complete classwork and earn tokens, while misbehavior dropped by 75 percent. "Thus a drop in misbehavior and a rise in academic performance went hand in hand," states this report.

Critics of this approach, however, believe that behaviorism affects only the symptoms of an underlying social ill; the problem may in fact get worse "while the pain is temporarily alleviated." What of self-discipline, they ask, and what of the goal of creating "independent, self-managing adults"?

One alternative approach discussed in this report is to train teachers in basic counseling skills, particularly those of effective listening and nonverbal cues. In one experiment, teachers trained in such techniques increased their communication with problem students, and behavior improved significantly.

Another interesting study found that discipline problems were much less severe in "alternative" high schools. The researchers hypothesized that the factors responsible were "the small size of the school, treatment of students as young adults, realistic attitudes toward student behavior, and informality, responsiveness, and understanding from teachers."

35 **Gary, Ted.** "First Steps in School Discipline." *Principal,* 61, 1 (September 1981), pp. 18-19. EJ 251 042.

"Establishing and maintaining effective discipline is not a matter of coming down hard on students, keeping the lid on, or cracking the whip." Rather, says Gary, an effective discipline program is one that centers on positive reinforcement, not punitive action. In such a program, furthermore, "students, parents, and staff all know that the structure of order is firm, fair, and consistent, and that rewards and punishment are clearly established and enforced for all."

There are, of course, a variety of specific discipline plans that incorporate these elements. William Glasser's approach, for example, "redirects student misbehavior to help the student recognize the underlying problem and establish a mutual contract to solve it." Rudolf Dreikurs's model focuses on modifying the child's basic motivation for behavior, whether it be desire for attention, power, or revenge, or a display of inadequacy. Thomas Gordon's plan "is based on two-way communication that develops respect between the teacher and student so that a no-lose solution to problems can be found."

The choice of which discipline program to use, Gary stresses, should be made collectively, with participation from teachers, parents, and students. Moreover, the implementation of a discipline program should be a "developmental process" that starts with an examination of existing discipline procedures and philosophies, proceeds to an analysis of the school's needs and the staff's beliefs, and ends with a group consensus "on a suitable and workable approach that agrees with everyone's philosophy on discipline." Gary also discusses the discipline program's effect on school climate and warns against the "popular education guru" who drops in and makes "a grandiose pitch for his or her favorite discipline program."

36 **Gil, Doron, and Heller, Philip S.** *Classroom Discipline: Toward a Diagnostic Model Integrating Teacher's Thoughts and Actions. Occasional Paper No. 13.* East Lansing, Michigan: Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University, 1978. 15 pages. ED 167 514.

According to Gil and Heller, there are four basic approaches to discipline: the permissive, the authoritarian, the behavioristic, and the diagnostic. The permissive, or laissez-faire approach, assumes that students are capable of disciplining themselves, whereas the authoritarian approach assumes the opposite—that student behavior must be dictated by an external authority or by rigid rules.

The behaviorist approach, quite popular among educators today, definitely is capable of managing behavior when applied correctly. But behaviorism has many faults, the authors emphasize, including the possibility that it may only be treating the symptoms and ignoring the causes of discipline problems.

A new approach to discipline, which has not yet been well developed, is the diagnostic model that the authors explain in this paper. Essentially, the diagnostic model views the teacher as a clinician who informally and objectively observes student behavior, makes a diagnosis as to why the student is misbehaving, and then provides the most appropriate treatment.

The emphasis in the model is on determining the underlying *cause* of the misbehavior, be it a reading deficiency, personal or interpersonal problems, or a family problem. Once the teacher has reasoned out the probable cause of the behavior, he or she can respond in an intelligent way, instead of blindly applying authoritarian or behaviorist techniques.

One advantage of this model is that it allows teachers to take a broader view of discipline and to begin to be able to help children with their personal problems. It also gives teachers insight into their own mental processes, resulting in better disciplinary decisions.

37

"Guide to Sanity Saving Discipline." *Instructor,* 88, 4 (November 1978), pp. 59-61. EJ 190 978.

Several creative solutions to discipline problems are outlined in this excellent, multiauthored article. Lee Canter, author of *Assertive Discipline,* discusses his approach to discipline and its one important commandment: "Thou shalt not make a demand thou are not prepared to follow through upon."

Frederic Jones also emphasizes assertiveness, in particular the importance of proper body language in being assertive. Confronting a misbehaving student is like playing poker, says Jones, with both the student and the instructor raising the ante until one folds. With proper tone of voice, body position, and use of Jones's famous "steely glare," the instructor can always win at this game. "When children learn you follow through consistently, that you can't be undone, or faked out, they will quit testing you."

Another section of this seven-part article discusses how to handle those students who are chronic attention getters. The key is to allow such students to "show off" in a productive manner. For example, instead of constantly battling a student's attention-getting efforts, which often only adds fuel to the fire, the instructor might propose to help the student write a funny story to read to the class at some defined future time. For every two minutes of this kind of positive attention, state the authors, the teacher will save fifteen minutes of disruption.

Several other contributors—primarily school administrators and instructors—discuss their schools' successful approaches to discipline.

38

Johnson, James R. *Procedures for Teachers of the Severely Handicapped to Follow in Controlling Serious Behavior Problems within the Classroom. Change Episode Two.* La Verne, California: La Verne College, 1977. 78 pages. ED 165 396.

In 1977, a new federal law, the "Education for All Handicapped Children Act," became effective, making the states responsible for providing free, appropriate education for all handicapped individuals from ages three to twenty-one. The result of this law is that many autistic and severely handicapped children who were formerly housed in hospitals or kept at home are now attending public schools.

The main question now facing school administrators, says Johnson, is this: "What are the acceptable procedures teachers may use in controlling severe behavior problems within the confines of a class of severely handicapped children?" To answer this question, the Corona-Norco (California) Unified School District assembled a problem-solving group that included four teachers of handicapped children, a principal, one parent, and Johnson, then serving as the coordinator of special education. After a literature survey and a study of current practices within the district, a set of eight types of acceptable behavior control for use by classroom teachers was established, with particular attention paid to the legality of the approved techniques.

For example, "Planned Ignoring," "Loss of Privileges," and "Positive Reinforcement" are approved techniques when applied according to the defined procedures. Certain types of corporal punishment are also allowed, the most severe being a spanking. The procedures allow a spanking only when there is an adult witness and require that the details of the spanking be recorded in writing for the building principal and be reported verbally to the parents.

The approved procedures list is a great benefit for the teachers of the handicapped classes, reports Johnson, allowing them to easily explain the program to parents and get their written approval. At the same time, they know exactly what is and is not allowed, and they are confident that the defined procedures are fully in line with both administrative policy and state and federal laws. Included is a lengthy discussion of the literature on the disciplining of handicapped children.

39

Jones, Frederic H. "The Gentle Art of Classroom Discipline." *National Elementary Principal,* 58, 4 (June 1979), pp. 26-32. EJ 203 096.

"For decades," says Jones, "discipline has been a bad word in professional circles," largely because to most people it connotes only punishment. Even in teacher training programs at colleges and universities, classroom management techniques are rarely covered in any depth, the rationale being that teachers will "pick it up on the job." Thus few teachers, even experienced ones, are properly trained in the management of discipline problems.

One solution to this problem is an inservice training program in classroom management, such as the "Classroom Management Training Program" (CMTP) that Jones directs. Rather than training all teachers directly," CMTP uses a pyramid technique that relies on developing expertise in a few teachers and administrators, who then pass on the knowledge to their colleagues."

The most common method of student management is limit setting, or "consistently disallowing infractions of basic classroom rules." First, the instructor sets down a few "sensible, operational rules" for each lesson format that he or she is willing to consistently and quickly enforce. If, for example, a child is talking in class, the instructor faces the child squarely, says his or her name firmly, and looks him or her in the eye. If the child does not respond, the instructor goes through a set procedure of calmly but firmly approaching the child, and eyeballing him or her while only inches apart, if necessary. Jones's description of this latter technique is absolutely chilling.

Incentive systems can also be powerful disciplinary tools, particularly when they incorporate the element of peer pressure. In one such system, a "preferred activity" is planned at the end of a period of work. When students misbehave during the work period, the instructor clicks a stopwatch, raises it above his or her head, and announces to the class that the time for their preferred activity is being reduced by the misbehaving student.

40

Kohut, Sylvester, Jr. "Defining Discipline in the Classroom." *Action in Teacher Education,* 1, 2 (Fall-Winter 1978), pp. 11-15. EJ 197 172.

Since at least the beginning of this century, the controversy between traditional and humanistic approaches to discipline has raged, with first one viewpoint then the other gaining dominance. In the early 1900s, states Kohut, the "Progressive Education Movement challenged the traditional view of discipline with a more permissive and humanistic 'self-discipline' approach." This viewpoint was in turn attacked by traditionalists, and a back-to-basics approach was eventually restored.

In the 1960s, a new wave of humanism struck, with a resulting deluge of educational reforms and new approaches to classroom communication. Now the tide seems to be turning again, as traditionalists blame declining SAT scores and increased turmoil in the schools on the permissiveness of the humanistic approach. Today's classroom teachers, many of whom were students in the 1960s, are understandably confused and frustrated in their search for effective discipline guidelines. As a first step toward alleviating this confusion, Kohut encourages school personnel to define their ideas about discipline and compare them with their colleagues' conceptions.

To some educators, discipline is synonymous with classroom management. But classroom management is too broad a term, says Kohut, referring to virtually every interaction and activity that takes place in the classroom. Conversely, discipline is not just punishment. Rather, discipline refers to a two-dimensional system of training that involves both imposition by educators and the development of character and self-control by the individual student. Once a school's personnel have agreed on what discipline in the classroom should be, concludes Kohut, they can design an effective and consistent schoolwide discipline program.

41

Lasley, Thomas J. "Helping Teachers Who Have Problems with Discipline—A Model and Instrument." *NASSP Bulletin,* 65, 441 (January 1981), pp. 6-15. EJ 238 663.

Teachers need more than general suggestions for improving student discipline—they need specific advice on specific incidences of student misbehavior. Providing such advice, says Lasley, requires that principals have a "theoretical model" of student discipline and "an instrument which translates the model in terms of improved supervision of teachers." Lasley here presents such an instrument—essentially a rating form to be used while observing teachers—and explains the premises on which it is based.

The three "theoretical propositions" underlying the instrument—"culled primarily out of the research conducted in classroom settings"—are as follows: private corrections are more effective than public corrections; commands requiring an immediate student response are better than commands to be followed later; and individualized commands are better than group commands.

These propositions are "placed on operational continua" on Lasley's "Discipline Analysis Instrument": the more effective responses are placed at one end of a rating scale, and the least effective at the other. In addition to these rating scales for the teacher's response to a misbehavior, the Discipline Analysis Instrument includes spaces for indicating the type of activity during which the student misbehavior took place, the type of misbehavior, and the student's response to the teacher's correction.

After the supervisor has observed and recorded the data for at least twenty-five misbehavior incidents, a teacher-supervisor conference is held. From the forms, patterns of teacher responses can be detected and problem areas identified.

The supervisor can then help the teacher plot strategies for improvement, particularly for misbehavior incidents that the supervisor recorded but that the teacher did not respond to.

42

Lipman, Victor. "Mr. Glasser's Gentle Rod." *American Education,* 14, 7 (August-September 1978), pp. 28-31. EJ 200 758.

Discipline without punishment? That's what the proponents of William Glasser's ideas are saying is not only possible but already a reality in many schools. Glasser, the author of *Schools Without Failure,* has taken some old ideas and organized them into a coherent plan for modifying student behavior.

The key to the Glasser method, says Lipman, is *involvement.* "Students cause problems because they are not *involved* with school. Teachers have little control because they are not *involved* with students." So the first step is to increase involvement with students by being personal, listening to students, and being their friend.

The next principle of the Glasser method is to "deal with present behavior." When students misbehave, ask them *what* they did, not *why* they did it, the latter inviting "a tangle of finger pointing and accusations." Also, don't dwell on past failures: "Reminding Tommy that this is the ninth time this month he has whacked someone with a ruler encourages a built-in fatalism, a sense that behavior cannot be changed."

After making the student aware of what he or she has done, get the student to make a value judgment about his or her behavior. "This may take some doing," Lipman admits, particularly getting some students to realize the wrongness of their actions. Once this is achieved, though, the teacher can help the student make a plan and a commitment to change that behavior. At all times, the adult and child work together instead of the adult handing down decisions. And even when the child fails, the teacher continues to express confidence that the child can do better next time.

Although proponents claim that punishment plays no part in the Glasser method, certain extreme actions have "natural consequences." The difference, according to Lipman, is that "punishment is often arbitrary and unexpected, but natural consequences come as no surprise."

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43 **McLemore, William P.** "Make Contact Before There Is a Discipline Problem." *Action in Teacher Education,* 1, 2 (Fall-Winter 1978), pp. 37-40. EJ 197 174.

How can a teacher short-circuit classroom misbehavior before it occurs? One promising approach, outlined in this article, is for the teacher to hold an open house for parents, centered on the theme of classroom discipline.

McLemore recommends that teachers first discuss open house plans with the principal and get his or her approval. Next, the teacher should explain the open house to the students and their role in it. Invitations sent to parents by mail or carried by students should have a tear-off portion for the parents' responses, and parents who do not reply should be contacted by phone.

The open house itself might include name tags for parents, refreshments served by students, and a program of the hour's events. McLemore suggests that a guest speaker be invited—a teacher, principal, college professor, or school social worker—to give a short talk on the nature and importance of the school's discipline program. A question and answer period should follow.

The primary advantage of having such an open house is that "students will observe the teacher soliciting parental cooperation and support before a discipline problem occurs." Thus, the student will realize that if he or she should misbehave, there is a very good probability that the teacher will contact the parents.

After the open house, parent-teacher conferences should be held to further enhance communication between school and home. The teacher should listen attentively in these conferences, for in many cases the causes of a student's misbehavior will be revealed.

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44 **Multhauf, Arleen P.; Willower, Donald J.; and Licata, Joseph W.** "Teacher Pupil-Control Ideology and Behavior and Classroom Environmental Robustness." *Elementary School Journal,* 79, 1 (September 1978), pp. 40-46. EJ 192 895.

Teachers' pupil-control ideologies can range from the humanistic or permissive at one extreme to the custodial or authoritarian at the other. Likewise, teachers' actual behaviors in the classroom can range over this same continuum, but an individual teacher's ideology may or may not match his or her behavior.

The question addressed in this study was whether a teacher's behavior (as perceived by students) and ideology correlated with the drama or excitement that elementary students felt in the classroom. The drama of school life, or its "environmental robustness" as the authors call it, was measured with a questionnaire administered to the 800 fourth, fifth, and sixth graders studied. Teacher behavior on a humanistic-custodial scale was indicated by students on another questionnaire, while the pupil-control ideologies of the seventeen female and fifteen male teachers were measured with a similar rating form administered to the teachers.

The researchers found, contrary to their expectations, that there was a strong correlation between the humanism in a teacher's pupil-control behavior and the robustness that students felt toward their school life. The authors speculate that "the leeway that humanistic teachers give students often leads to disorder and a higher level of conflict than is found in a more custodial classroom," thus giving a higher level of "drama" in the classroom.

In contrast to teacher behavior, there was no significant correlation between teacher ideology and classroom robustness. But when the data for male and female teachers were separated, it was found that each group had a significant but opposite correlation. For male teachers, the more custodial their ideology, the more robust students perceived their school life. For the female teachers, the opposite held true: a humanistic ideology correlated with a robust classroom.

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45 **Tauber, Robert.** "Power Struggles: Techniques to Defuse Them." *NASSP Bulletin,* 65, 448 (November 1981), pp. 53-58. EJ 252 248.

According to one popular theory, there are four goals of student misbehavior: attention, power, revenge, and display of inadequacy. The goal sought by a misbehaving student depends on the degree of discouragement felt by that student. Mild discouragement causes students to seek attention, while more serious discouragement causes students to seek first power, then revenge, and then a "display of inadequacy."

Misbehavior to gain power—the second point on the hierarchy—is particularly common in school settings. Power struggles interfere with classroom learning and often escalate to involve the building administrator. When educators are involved in a power struggle with a student, they often take one of the two most obvious actions—they either fight back or they give in. Both of these actions, warns Tauber, create win-lose situations and cause "severe undesirable side effects for both the educator and the child."

Successful alternatives to fighting back or giving in do exist, however. One response Tauber discusses is to acknowledge the actual power of the student and then enlist his or her voluntary cooperation. Tauber uses an example of a defiant student newspaper photographer, who is the only one who can develop needed pictures on time. "Your admitting that he has that power defuses his power, permits him to no longer need to flaunt it, and sets the stage for him to not only become a hero by developing the pictures but to develop them and save face at the same time."

Another approach is to withdraw gracefully from the struggle and "suggest a time and place when just you and the student can talk over this problem." A third approach suggested by Tauber is to "plan ahead for power struggles" by explaining to students how you will deal with future power struggles and then enlist their support for this plan.

46 **Usova, George M.** "Reducing Discipline Problems in the Elementary Schools: Approaches and Suggestions." *Education,* 99, 4 (Summer 1979), pp. 419-22. EJ 206 937.

The best methods of discipline, says Usova, are centered on the principle of "praise the good behavior and ignore the disruptive behavior." In the "RAID Approach," for example, Rules define each classroom activity, Approval is given to those children obeying the rules, children breaking the rules are Ignored, and Disapproval is expressed if the behavior is intolerable.

In a similar approach, called "Ignore and Praise," teachers are taught to "give descriptive praise related to the specific behavior" and to avoid giving "general or ambiguous praise." Disruptions in class are ignored, while good behavior is rewarded with tickets good for thirty minutes of free time in an activity room.

Another behaviorist approach is that of "educational self-management." Misbehaving children are asked to keep a record of their own behavior. If the child's record matches that of the teacher, the child is rewarded. The result of such self-assessment, says Usova, is that children become much more aware of their own behavior and as a result usually show great improvement in their behavior.

47 **Zimmerman, Jim, and Archbold, Lou Ann.** "On-Campus Suspension: What It Is and Why It Works." *NASSP Bulletin,* 63, 428 (September 1979), pp. 63-67. EJ 206 330.

On-Campus Suspension (OCS) is a program instituted at Hemet (California) Junior High School that keeps suspended students on campus rather than rewarding their misdeeds with a home suspension. An OCS program keeps students in a learning environment, state the authors, rather than at home watching television or causing trouble in the community. And in most districts, the money saved in average daily attendance money by keeping the students in school will pay for half or more of the suspension room teacher's salary for the year.

To set up an OCS program, a school needs only a classroom, some textbooks, "an innovative, sensitive teacher," and "a considerable amount of administrative support." Students referred to the program sign a contract stating the work they must complete before being allowed to return to their normal school routine. On the first day, students are given the Kudor Interest Inventory, and tests of math, English, and reading comprehension abilities. The Kudor test allows the teacher "to open various discussions with the student about likes and dislikes," which sometimes have resulted in needed changes in students' classes.

On the second day, students complete two hours each of reading and math and one hour of "values clarification." Students are kept in the suspension room for up to five days, depending on their infraction and their behavior and performance while in the suspension room.

The most important factor in ensuring proper student behavior in the suspension room, state the authors, is isolation from the rest of the student body.

4

Coping with Stress

48 **Adams, John D.** "Guidelines for Stress Management and Life Style Changes." *Personnel Administrator* 24, 6 (June 1979), pp. 35-38, 44. EJ 203 088.

Three primary factors mediate an individual's experience of stress: the individual's personality, his or her interpersonal environment, and the nature of the organization in which he or she works. Although change in any of these areas is very difficult to accomplish, there are several sensible actions an individual can take in each area to manage stress effectively.

Adams, an organization development consultant, notes several organizational improvements that can reduce job stress, such as role clarification, stress education and assessment, and "identification and change of stress-provoking norms." The emphasis of this article, however, is on changes in the personal sphere. Adams presents several sensible and practical guidelines for "facilitating healthful life style changes," since many people have difficulty with such changes.

Adams emphasizes that changing one's stress-creating behaviors must be a gradual process. Wholesale life-style changes, like crash diets, are doomed to failure. The first prerequisite for change is an *explicit* personal decision or commitment to change. "Often, this mobilizing decision comes as a result of some 'shock,' either to one's self or to a relative or close friend," but such an experience is not necessary.

The next step is to decide on a simple, *manageable* change project. Try this single life-style change for a minimum of three weeks, and then decide whether it is worth continuing. Slowly, exchange old habits and activities for new, taking on easier changes early on to build up confidence and momentum.

When you do experience heavy and prolonged stress, try not to bottle up and simmer. Instead, reach out and take initiative — move "towards the environment in a positive and thoughtful way." Often, other people will not expect you to change and will resist such changes. So build and maintain interpersonal support systems that will facilitate and encourage positive change.

49 **Brown, G. Ronald, and Carlton, Patrick W.** "How to Conquer Stress When You Can and Cope with It When You Can't." *National Elementary Principal*, 59, 3 (March 1980), pp. 37-39. EJ 219 613.

Life and stress are inseparable. In fact, the only time we're totally free of stress "is when we are dead." Since stress is so inescapable, say Brown and Carlton, the best strategy for coping with it is to gain an understanding of stress and then turn it to our advantage.

An ideal approach to managing stress would involve "determining the right amount and right kind of stress for us, in an appropriate time frame, and then seeking circumstances that are congruent with the personal parameters we have established." Of course, most principals have little opportunity to tailor their "stress environments" in this way: they must respond to excessive and potentially harmful stress on an almost daily basis. Thus, it behooves the building administrator to learn strategies for reducing the long-term effects of high stress levels.

Two keys to successful stress management are good nutrition and regular, vigorous exercise. These commonsense strategies can go far to minimize the negative effects of excess stress. Another simple but effective approach is to regularize the working environment. "Stress is less harmful when it is predictable," the authors emphasize, so schedules should be arranged "to fit predictable stress occurrences." This strategy will increase one's sense of control, which is critical to successful stress management.

Stress is often created or compounded by poor planning and time use. Thus, mastering time management is another important strategy for mastering stress. Tension can also be reduced by reserving time for recreational activities away from the school and by using mind exercises such as the "relaxation response." Finally, stress can be reduced simply by becoming aware of personal stress limits, so that "diversionary habits" for avoiding instances of excessive stress can be developed.

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50 **Giammatteo, Michael C., and Giammatteo, Delores M.,** *Executive Well-Being: Stress and Administrators.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1980. 69 pages. ED 180 134.

The authors of this monograph, former educators and school administrators who are now practicing psychologists, combine their expertise in all areas to help administrators deal successfully with stress.

Utilizing a model for dealing with stress that includes stress awareness, tolerance, reduction, and management, the authors offer a number of specific techniques for both dealing with stress and decreasing it. Unfortunately, the model is sometimes fuzzy, and definitions of parts of the model are inconsistent and poorly differentiated throughout the book. Yet the weaknesses of their theoretical framework are more than balanced by their insightful and practical suggestions. Perhaps their unique contribution lies in their concept of stress awareness.

Emphasizing that unknown or unrecognized stressors have much more power over people than do identified stressors, the Giammatteos provide a number of helpful exercises to heighten stress awareness. These exercises help administrators identify specific "sources of overload" connected with major changes, impulsive behavior, lack of role clarity, overwork, and unchallenging work. They help administrators recognize their own "type A" behavior and provide an exercise for tallying a personal "stress score." Using these exercises, administrators can pinpoint exact causes of stress and begin to deal with rather than repress them.

The Giammatteos also take an unusual tack in focusing on interpersonal conflicts as a source of stress. They recommend techniques to increase tolerance of others' ideas and point out that the unwillingness or inability to express one's feelings often leads to increased stress.

Through these and other suggestions and perceptions, the authors successfully apply the most current insights of counselors and therapists to the everyday problems of today's school administrators.

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51 **Howard, John H.; Cunningham, D. A.; and Rechnitzer, P. A.** "Work Patterns Associated with Type A Behavior: A Managerial Population." *Human Relations,* 30, 9 (September 1977), pp. 825-36. EJ 169 823.

"Type A behavior," say the authors, is characterized by "chronic and excessive struggle, competitiveness, ambition, and impatience," as well as by "a high need for achievement" and "a strong sense of time urgency." Type A behavior has been positively correlated with an increased risk of coronary heart disease.

In this study, the authors examined 256 managers from twelve companies to determine the relationships between Type A behavior and certain work patterns and job characteristics. Overall, 61 percent of the managers were found to be Type A, and about half of these managers were considered to be "extreme" Type A's. Companies that were growing at a high rate tended to have a greater percentage of Type A managers — up to 76 percent. Extreme Type B's, the authors speculate, may represent the traditional deadwood of a company.

Extreme Type A's tended to work more discretionary hours every week and travel more days per year than the other types. Type A's as a group also had a higher median salary than Type B's. In an analysis of job tension factors, the authors found that Type A's scored low on "contentment." In contrast to the more satisfied Type B's, Type A's had heavier workloads, held positions of supervisory responsibility, made decisions on others' careers, and worked in competition with others.

Type A's, on the other hand, felt the least "locked-in" by their jobs, a finding reflecting their greater personal confidence. A Type A manager, state the authors, "feels that his education and training are adequate for the present and future and that there are alternative organizations in which he can develop his career."

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52 **Hunsaker, Phillip L.; Mudgett, William C.; and Wynne, Bayard E.** "Assessing and Developing Administrators for Turbulent Environments." *Administration and Society,* 7, 3 (November 1975), pp. 312-27. EJ 130 918.

According to the studies of several psychologists and organizational scientists, the successful administrator of the near future must be flexible to changing circumstances, tolerant of ambiguity, and have an attitude "directed toward inquiry and novelty." To help in detecting and developing such qualities, the authors have developed a model system for "selecting and preparing administrators for the organic-adaptive organizations and turbulent-field environments, which are already becoming reality for many organizations."

One part of the authors' model is to use various psychological screening methods to determine who can and cannot cope with a turbulent work environment. An individual's score on the "Purdue-Rutgers Prior Experience Inventory, II," for example, indicates the optimal level of incongruity expected by the individual from his or

her environment. Higher scores indicate a greater capacity for turbulent environments.

Another approach is to use behavioral simulation, which, the authors explain, is somewhere between the simple decision tests used in administrative assessment centers and an on-the-job test of a potential administrator. The "Leadership Assessment and Training Simulation" models "much of the complexity and realism of real life decision situations, and participants report high degrees of motivation and involvement."

The authors also describe techniques for classifying job environments according to how complex and turbulent they are. In their overall scheme, potential administrators would first undergo the various screening and testing procedures and then be placed in a job environment that matched their own tolerances and abilities.

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53 **Kiev, Ari, and Kohn, Vera.** *Executive Stress: An AMA Survey Report.* New York: AMACOM, American Management Associations, 1979. 64 pages. ED 181 553.

In this well-written publication Kiev and Kohn report the results of a massive survey of members of the American Management Associations. More than 2,500 respondents offered their perceptions of what causes stress, how to cope with it, and how much stress they experience.

Although Kiev and Kohn place great importance on the fact that the managers did not report experiencing much stress ("The results do not support the popular image of the harried executive"), the wording of their survey questions all but negates findings on this portion of the survey. Respondents were to indicate such things as whether they "work excessively," "lose sight of what's really important," and "set impossible deadlines"—self-characteristics that people are almost never aware of or able to admit, even to themselves.

The findings that *are* valuable here, however, are the managers' perceptions of what causes stress for them and their techniques for dealing with it. The leading causes of stress cited were a heavy workload, time pressures, and unrealistic deadlines. The most common method of coping with stress was delegating work instead of carrying the workload alone. The authors report that one manager noted that delegating responsibility "helps prevent stress from building up and at the same time gives the subordinate a good feeling of accomplishment." This method of coping suggests many administrators are aware of the situations that cause stress and attempt to reduce the stress in a realistic and appropriate way.

The second most popular method of coping with stress was to analyze the stress-producing situation and decide what was and what was not worth worrying about. The authors call this "a tool for selecting an appropriate response to prevent stress from turning into distress."

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54 **Koff, Robert H.; Laffey, James M.; Olson, George E.; and Cichon, Donald J.** "Coping with Conflict. Executive Stress and the School Administrator." *NASSP Bulletin,* 65, 449 (December 1981), pp. 1-9. EJ 255 123.

An incompetent teacher needs to be helped, or else dismissed. The principal is being involuntarily transferred to another school. A teachers' strike is looming on the horizon.

These are a few of the most stressful events experienced by school principals today, according to a recent survey of school administrators reported in this article. The respondents—all members of NASSP or NAESP—were asked to rank the forty-eight stress-related events listed in the "Administrative Events Stress Inventory." The authors report the results of this ranking process, analyze the results in various ways, and describe some of the successful coping mechanisms that the administrators used to combat stress.

The most stressful events in school administrators' lives tend to center around conflict, particularly conflict with the teaching staff. Four of the five top-ranked events, in fact, dealt with conflicts with teachers—"forced resignations, unsatisfactory performance, preparing for a strike, and refusal to follow policies."

The next most important set of stressors revolved around the theme of "helplessness and security." Included here are such events as threats to physical or job security, legal action against the school, and criticism in the press. Student conflict was the next highest rated category of stressful events, followed by the least stressful category—routine management tasks and problem-solving.

Among the most effective strategies the administrators surveyed had found to reduce stress was good organization and planning. Of course, even comprehensive organization and planning cannot prevent the occurrence of some unknown or unanticipated event, the authors note, but this strategy makes it possible "to increase the efficiency of the implementation and monitoring of known tasks, thus leaving some time for dealing with those unanticipated occurrences." Also included in this issue of *NASSP Bulletin* are seven other articles on stress management for school administrators.

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55 **Manuso, James S.** "Executive Stress Management." *Personnel Administrator,* 24, 11 (November 1979), pp. 23-26. EJ 210 942.

Stress, says Manuso, is "a pattern of biochemical, functional and structural change that is involved in coping with any increased demand upon vital activity, especially adaptation to new situations." Occupational stress can be caused by any one of a number of imbalances: too much or too little work, an overly ambiguous or overly rigid work environment, extreme amounts of responsibility, or either too much or too little change. Stress, in turn, can cause a variety of well-known physical and mental disorders, including headache, allergies, ulcers, hypertension, and heart disease.

The key to reducing the effects of stress, says Manuso, is "learning how to regulate the system internally." One regulatory technique is called the "quieting response": when a stressful situation comes up, "one takes two deliberate deep breaths, paying attention to relaxing the jaw, the shoulders and tongue," while telling oneself not to get involved in the stress. This is usually enough to break the "stress response." For stress control on a long-term basis, Manuso recommends learning some system of deep relaxation, such as meditation or biofeedback training.

At the Equitable Life Assurance Society, where Manuso works as a clinical psychologist in the employee health department, a stress management program helps employees showing stress-related symptoms to relax. Following a medical exam, stressed employees receive two weeks of biofeedback training followed by five weeks of deep relaxation training and behavior modification. The company has benefited considerably by this policy, says Manuso, not only in decreased health program costs but in increased productivity as well.

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56 **McGaffey, Thomas N.** "New Horizons in Organizational Stress Prevention Approaches." *Personnel Administration,* 23, 11 (November 1978), pp. 26-32. EJ 192 434.

"Stress disorders cost organizations an estimated $17 to $25 billion each year in lost performance, absenteeism and health benefit payments," states McGaffey. Much of this expense could be saved, though, if organizations had comprehensive stress prevention programs.

A good stress prevention system should have two components: a generalized stress prevention program and a crisis intervention program. The generalized program might include exercise, biofeedback, and meditation programs, as well as education about stress. Such programs are growing rapidly in popularity, says McGaffey. For example, "over 120 companies provide their employees an opportunity to learn transcendental meditation and some are even providing special rooms for meditation."

But there will always be a certain high-risk group of employees for which such generalized programs will not work. For this subgroup, McGaffey encourages the use of an early-crisis intervention program called the Employee Assistance Program (EAP).

Under an EAP, employees showing significant signs of stress (enough to affect performance) are referred by their supervisors to the "In-House Coordinator" of the EAP. The coordinator explains the EAP, "motivates the employee to use the program and establishes the initial contact with the Diagnostic and Referral Agent." This agent is preferably "a specialized and integrated system of professionals outside the organization" who monitor and integrate the employee's treatment with physicians, lawyers, psychologists, and family and vocational counselors. Several companies that have established EAPs report large decreases in absenteeism and medical costs for employees treated in the program.

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57 **Quick, James C., and Quick, Jonathan D.** "Reducing Stress Through Preventive Management." *Human Resource Management,* 18, 3 (Fall 1979), pp. 15-22. EJ 211 009.

Administrators should not try to eliminate job stress in their organizations, state the authors; rather they should attempt to *manage* stress. The goal should be to maximize "eustress (euphoria and stress), a growthful, adaptive, healthy state of pleasurable arousal," while minimizing destructive stress, or "distress." Both kinds of stress are the result of the stimulation of the body's "fight-or-flight" reaction; the difference is in how the individual manages "the increased energy made available through this response."

Employee stress can be managed with two levels of preventive management actions. Level I techniques are organizational in nature and involve analyzing and restructuring job roles to reduce distress and provide greater job satisfaction. For example, in the "role analysis" technique—which is designed for stress situations caused by ambiguously defined work roles—"role profiles" are generated and coordinated by those persons in the organization who have expectations regarding the ill-defined position.

Level II preventive management actions are aimed at the individual level. These techniques "attempt to inhibit the 'fight-or-flight' response before it occurs or to provide a means for the individual to dissipate the distressful consequences of the response."

Some Level II techniques are directed at relieving specific symptoms, such as tense muscles or a rapidly beating heart. Included here are biofeedback and "autogenics"—a derivative of self-hypnosis. Other techniques, such as "systematic desensitization" and "dynamic psychotherapy," are directed at specific stressors (for example, fear of public speaking). A trained clinician is recommended for these techniques. Finally, there are general techniques that have proved themselves as stress preventors, including aerobic exercise, meditation, and systematic relaxation.

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58 **Reed, Sally.** "What You Can Do to Prevent Teacher Burnout." *National Elementary Principal,* 58, 3 (March 1979), pp. 67-70. EJ 199 444.

Principals have long been aware of the symptoms of teacher burnout, particularly in veteran teachers with seven to ten years of experience. But now, says Reed, the senior editor of *Instructor* magazine, the burnout syndrome is becoming an epidemic. Surveys are finding that teachers are becoming increasingly bored, disillusioned, and dissatisfied with their jobs. And the NEA reports that teachers are leaving the profession much earlier in their careers, particularly the best and brightest teachers.

So what can principals do to prevent burnout and keep teachers going? Reed offers a wealth of suggestions, along with many specific examples to illustrate her recommendations. Since boredom is one widely reported symptom of burnout, Reed suggests new challenges and fresh environments to spice up teachers' lives. Teachers can be allowed to switch classrooms and grades and expand into new curriculum areas. Principals can help teachers get sabbaticals, exchange opportunities, grants, and fellowships, and can encourage teachers to use their professional days.

To keep good teachers in the profession, principals can allow and encourage them to job-share their positions with someone else. And to combat feelings of alienation and powerlessness, principals can involve teachers in the decision-making process, particularly in matters that affect the teachers directly.

According to one researcher who studied "the life passages of teaching," most schools "do not reinforce or promote the mentor system that many other professions use." Reed suggests that to increase teacher self-esteem, principals place veteran instructors in charge of new employees "to inspire, to teach, [and] to guide."

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59 **Schuler, Randall S.** "Effective Use of Communication to Minimize Employee Stress." *Personnel Administrator,* 24, 6 (June 1979), pp. 40-44. EJ 203 089.

Employee stress can arise from feelings of inability to do an assigned job, lack of feedback from management, not knowing what to do or how to do it, or from personal value conflicts. Effective and proper use of communication by supervisors can do much to reduce these sources of employee stress. Schuler here discusses seven categories of communication behaviors that can either induce or reduce stress, and outlines several general skills of good communication.

Encouragement, or "achievement communication behavior" as Schuler calls it, is a valuable technique for increasing the employee's feelings of self-worth and confidence. This is especially important for newer employees and employees facing difficult assignments; with simple encouragement, employee stress is reduced while motivation is enhanced. Both encouragement and its opposite, "ego deflation communication behavior," tend to be self-fulfilling: what the supervisor expects is what the employee usually delivers.

In some situations, "participative communication behavior" is called for, in which supervisor and employee discuss and iron out conflicts and inconsistencies on a one-to-one basis. In other circumstances, a directive approach—in which the supervisor tells the employee exactly what is to be done and how to do it—may be the least stressful. Directive communication is appropriate when "the employee doesn't want or have the information to determine what to do or how to do something." The effective supervisor, concludes Schuler, knows how to use the various communication behaviors at the appropriate times to get the job done while keeping employee stress to a minimum.

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60 "Stress in the Teaching Profession." *Action in Teacher Education,* 2, 4 (Fall 1980), entire issue. EJ 237 794—EJ 237 804.

Stress is a normal part of life. But too much or too little stress can cause suffering, sickness, and even death. Most professional educators would agree that their lives contain too much stress, not too little. Indeed, a growing number of educators are exposed to severe and prolonged stress in their jobs and are suffering from what has come to be called "burnout."

Teacher burnout—its causes, diagnosis, prevention, and cure—is the subject of this issue of *Action in Teacher Education.* Sixteen authors—primarily teacher educators—examine stress and teacher burnout from a variety of perspectives and offer numerous strategies for alleviating the harmful effects of school and classroom stress.

One interesting article describes how teachers can use isometric exercises in the classroom to alleviate stress. The authors claim that these exercises "can be performed in a more or less subtle manner, and they may not even be noticed by students."

Another article describes the first comprehensive program of stress reduction to be offered by a school district. This program, begun in 1978 in Tacoma (Washington), includes insurance coverage for burnt-out teachers and inservice workshops on stress management.

Two articles summarize the existing research on stress and teaching, and a selected annotated bibliography describes fifty-four quality resources on stress and stress management. Other articles discuss stress and the beginning teacher, defend the "positive dimensions" of stress, and describe other approaches to school stress management that are applicable to administrators, teacher educators, and teachers themselves.

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61 **Swent, Boyd, and Gmelch, Walter H.** *Stress at the Desk and How to Creatively Cope. OSSC Bulletin Volume 21, Number 4.* Eugene, Oregon: Oregon School Study Council 1977. 51 pages. ED 146 698.

What techniques are used by Oregon school administrators to cope with stress? In this monograph, Swent and Gmelch report the results of a 1977 survey that determined not only the methods and strategies of stress management used by these educators, but also the demands that caused the most stress in their lives.

The most common coping strategies were physiological in nature. In addition to physical work and exercise, administrators mentioned such relaxation activities as yoga, meditation, and hobbies. Other frequently used strategies involved separating oneself from the work environment. Some individuals isolated themselves in their homes, while others traveled to the mountains or seashore to escape. Many educators fostered friendships outside the immediate educational environment so they could "discuss with non-educators topics other than education."

Cognitive activities used as coping techniques commonly involved "positive attitudes and supportive philosophies of life."

Responses included "establishing realistic goals," "learning to know one's self, maintaining a sense of humor," and "believing in and practicing the Christian ethic."

Surprisingly, the least mentioned coping strategies were those dealing with the acquisition of interpersonal and management skills. The authors speculate that administrators may not recognize such techniques as successful stress reducers, or else they may not yet have mastered these techniques.

Most of the top stressors perceived by the Oregon administrators were "constraints intrinsic to administration," such as complying with rules, attending meetings, and dealing with interrupting phone calls. Other stressors were interpersonal and intrapersonal in nature, such as having to make decisions that would affect colleagues, resolving conflicts, and imposing excessively high demands on oneself.

62

Vanderpol, Maurice. "School Administrators under Stress." *Principal,* 60, 4 (March 1981), pp. 39-41. EJ 243 879.

In his work as a leader of small groups in leadership seminars for school administrators and other organizational managers, Vanderpol has interviewed numerous middle-level and top-level administrators about the stress in their lives and jobs. He has found that most administrators consider stress to be "an occupational hazard to be endured with no chance of identifying or changing its causes and effects." But what these administrators need to do, Vanderpol continues, is "examine the pressures in their lives" and "devise strategies for coping with them."

The changing role of the school administrator, special education requirements, and declining enrollment are all sources of significant on-the-job stress. But school administrators are often confronted with substantial stresses in their personal lives as well, such as life-stage crises, adolescent children, elderly parents, and so on.

These stresses, if not dealt with in an appropriate manner, can create symptoms of overstress such as "feelings of tension, anxiety, frustration, and isolation; feelings of depression that may take the form of restlessness, boredom, or burnout; and doubts about one's adequacy and ability to perform." More severe symptoms may follow.

To successfully manage stress, Vanderpol suggests that administrators first "set aside time for reflection to consider what is going on and how long it can continue." Administrators should share their thoughts with others, and should break away from the idea that asking for help is a sign of weakness.

One of the most successful means for combatting stress, Vanderpol believes, is a "professional support group of six to twelve peers," who meet for an hour or two every two or three weeks to share experiences and feelings. The center of discussion should be "the philosophical and personal questions that no one really talks about," rather than the mechanics of management. The lifespan of these groups is usually years, Vanderpol adds, and it is often useful to get the group going with the help of a facilitator.

63

Vetter, Eric W. "Role Pressure and the School Principal." *NASSP Bulletin,* 60, 403 (November 1976), pp. 11-23. EJ 156 493.

A principal's behavior is shaped by two forces: the "role demands" put on the principal by persons either internal or external to the school, and the principal's own ideas of how he or she should behave. "Role pressure" develops, says Vetter, whenever there is conflict between the demands of two or more of these role senders, when there are too many demands to be handled, or when there is an inability to perform against role demands (role inadequacy).

The sensible "managerial approach" that Vetter outlines for handling management stress involves "a 'proactive' posture to take command of the role relationship in order to achieve better job results and to reduce role stress." One option is to openly and maturely discuss with role senders (teachers, parents, students, fellow administrators, and so forth) their expectations and demands, and to explain to them your own views concerning what should be expected of you.

Another option is to "co-opt" role senders into sharing responsibility for the behavior they are demanding. The number of role demands can be cut down by arranging the physical office space to limit the principal's accessibility, or by requiring certain requests to be in writing. Consolidating role senders, as with the PTA, also reduces the volume of requests, but in turn greatly increases the intensity of the demands that are made.

In addition to limiting and refining external role demands, the principal should learn to manage his or her total life. "An inventory of outside involvements" is one technique for determining pressure sources. Another very useful option is to use "metraprescriptions": self-devised rules for governing one's own behavior. Priority setting is yet another technique Vetter discusses for dealing with stress *proactively* rather than *reactively.*

5 Dismissing Incompetent Teachers

64 **Anderson, Judith C., and Anderson, James E.** "Natural Justice: Its Definition and Application to the Termination of School System Employees." Paper presented at the International Congress on Education, Vancouver, B.C., June 1979. 43 pages. ED 175 132.

Natural justice, a concept of English and Canadian law, is essentially identical with the American concept of "due process." Natural justice, in simple terms, means the "fairness in the procedure used." It guarantees an opportunity to be heard (a hearing) and freedom from bias in the judgment process.

The authors here review the legal arguments for natural justice, describe the responsibilities of school boards in providing natural justice, and then offer several guidelines for administrative action in the termination of incompetent employees. They illustrate many of their points with descriptions of normative cases and excerpts from court decisions.

The first step in providing natural justice is to make sure that every employee knows specifically what is expected of him or her. In addition to job descriptions, this involves clearly communicating new or changed policies to all employees.

When an employee is not meeting expectations, he or she should be informed. This, of course, is not always easy. "We have encountered many examples in which supervisors have written laudatory evaluation reports with full knowledge that serious deficiencies existed," state the authors. These evaluations have sometimes been used in court as a defense against termination. However difficult it may be, though, the communication of dissatisfaction with performance "is an essential ingredient in treating others fairly."

When performance is unsatisfactory, "the employee should be provided with help to remedy deficiencies" and should be informed of the consequences of failure to improve. The employee should be a full participant in the evaluation/improvement process, for this is "one of the strongest means to increase the validity of the process." Finally, the data used to build a termination case should be empirical and objective and should avoid value judgments, which are suspect in the eyes of the court and are difficult to substantiate.

65 **Cramer, Jerome.** "How Would Your Faucets Work If Plumbers Were Shielded by Tenure Laws?" *American School Board Journal,* 163, 10 (October 1976), pp. 22-24. EJ 146 468.

"It is a deplorable truth," says Cramer, "that in most states the process of sacking a teacher is as complicated—and sometimes as horrifying—as a Kafka nightmare." In Oklahoma, for example, a teacher can drag a school board through "a local hearing, a meeting of the state's professional practices commission, and then a hearing before the state board of education." And *then* the teacher can begin a judicial process that can go all the way to the state supreme court.

Tenure laws are still clung to by most teachers, even though the principles of due process that they guarantee are now well established in common law. Most school boards, states Cramer, have quit trying to abolish tenure laws and instead are working to improve them. Recent surveys indicate that administrators want probationary periods extended to five or more years, and tenure to be renewable every five years.

School boards are learning how to dismiss incompetent teachers within the present legal framework, however, by using evaluation and record-keeping procedures that ensure due process for the teacher. Many teacher unions support this approach to dismissal. In Iowa, for example, both the major teachers union and the school boards association support the evaluation clause of a new continuing contract law.

This law stipulates the procedures for evaluation—including minimum number of evaluations and designated evaluators—and requires that the criteria for judgment be known to the teacher. The evaluation information must also be fully accessible to the teacher, and the evaluators and teacher must sign an evaluation form after each evaluation. In other states, teachers hesitate to back strong statewide evaluation laws, fearing that a bad evaluation law could be used as a political weapon to destroy unions.

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66 **Dolgin, Ann B.** "Two Types of Due Process: The Role of Supervision in Teacher Dismissal Cases." *NASSP Bulletin*, 65, 442 (February 1981), pp. 17-21. EJ 240 463.

It used to be that school districts could dismiss incompetent teachers with little resulting trouble. But now, says Dolgin, districts must be prepared to provide adequate and well-documented evidence to terminate a teacher's employment and must carefully follow prescribed constitutional guidelines. Dolgin here discusses some of the legal requirements districts must meet to successfully terminate incompetent teachers and suggests some supervisory techniques for meeting these requirements.

All tenured teachers and some nontenured teachers are entitled to two types of due process should they be dismissed. "Substantive" due process "provides the protection of such basic rights as speech, press, religion, assembly and equal protection of the law as listed in the First, Thirteenth, and Fourteenth Amendments." "Procedural" due process provides protection from the arbitrary actions of public officials. Under tenure law, Dolgin emphasizes, a teacher dismissal case cannot be reviewed by the courts unless procedural or substantive due process has been denied.

To provide procedural due process, districts must follow well-defined procedures in dismissal cases. Teachers must be properly informed of charges, must be given a hearing if desired, must be protected against arbitrary rulings, and must be given the opportunity for "appellate review." To provide substantive due process rights, districts should make sure that teachers know the standards of expected professional performance, should provide teachers with "continuous feedback and notice" of strengths and weaknesses, should help teachers overcome their deficiencies, and should provide reasonable time for improvement.

The courts are primarily interested in whether rights have been violated, in particular whether the reasons for a dismissal were "discriminatory, personal, or political." Judgments concerning educational policies and evaluation criteria are usually left to the school districts. But school officials must be able to prove, with written documentation, that incompetence according to the district's criteria does exist. Dolgin discusses other aspects of dismissal cases and provides suggestions for providing adequate documentation.

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67 **Downey, Gregg W.** "How to Get Rid of Your Bad Teachers and Help Your Good Ones Get Better." *American School Board Journal*, 165, 6 (June 1978), pp. 23-26. EJ 181 474.

"Believe it or not," says Downey, "even the most stringent tenure laws do not oblige school systems to retain unsatisfactory teachers" as long as those teachers fail to satisfy "essential criteria" established by the board. Though a difficult task, the details of these criteria should be agreed on by all affected parties, including board members, administrators, and teachers. Consensus could be achieved by first convening a representative task force to develop the proposed criteria for later board approval. Downey suggests several possible criteria, which in today's circumstances will necessarily be a "blend of subjective and quasi-objective yardsticks."

Essential to the teacher evaluation process is thorough and continuous documentation. Written and dated evaluations signed by both principal and teacher should be kept on file, because undocumented material cannot be used in legal proceedings.

When termination proceedings are begun, the board and principals should "have a clear idea of the teacher's recourse to appeals," and should be prepared for appeals with both solid documentation and effective testimony from the building-level administrator. In addition, the board and administrators, with the help of legal counsel, should decide on the most effective language to use in final warnings and notices.

Downey strongly recommends inservice training for principals on teacher dismissal, since they bear the brunt of the burden in the legal proceedings. He concludes with a short discussion of a last resort ploy that can, in many cases, save the district money—buying out the teacher's contract.

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68 **Gray, Frank.** "When Evaluating Teachers, Never Violate These 13 Rules. *The Executive Educator*, 3, 11 (November 1981), pp. 18-19, 38. EJ 253 760.

The best teacher dismissal cases, says Gray, "are lost *not on the substance of the argument* but on the degree to which due process procedures were skirted." By following the guidelines for teacher evaluation outlined here, however, administrators can ensure that their dismissal cases are decided on substantive rather than on procedural grounds.

Before a new teacher is hired, the district should make certain that the teacher knows the school system's performance expectations. A job description delineating areas of responsibilities for the teacher should be developed and distributed. The teacher should sign a statement indicating that he or she has read the description and has had it explained by a supervisor. The statement should then be placed in the teacher's file. Administrators should also make available to teachers a full, written description of the system's teacher evaluation plan, including the procedures for dealing with unsatisfactory performance.

When an administrator detects problems with a teacher's performance, the teacher should be told in plain English what the problems are. Criticisms should be in writing, with one copy always going to the teacher. Next a plan to correct the teacher's deficiency should be developed. Included in the plan should be descriptions of deficiencies, suggested teacher activities, administrative assistance to be offered, and evaluation criteria.

Prior to a clinical observation, the deficiencies should be reviewed, and the teacher should be told just what the evaluator will be looking for. After the observation, the teacher and supervisor should discuss areas of concern and work out strategies for improvement. A written report of the observation session should be returned to the teacher within three days for the teacher's signature and comments. Other suggestions offered by Gray are to allow adequate time for improvement, be consistent in observations, and fulfill all the requirements of state and local law.

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69 **Larson, David H.** "Advice for the Principal: Dealing with Unsatisfactory Teacher Performance." *NASSP Bulletin,* 65, 442 (February 1981), pp. 10-11. EJ 240 461.

An effective teacher evaluation program should have two purposes—to help teachers improve their instruction and to identify incompetent teachers. Of course, says Larson, a good evaluation program needs to address other areas of staff performance and behavior, but "the supervisory 'bottom line'" of the program "is to help teachers get better or to help teachers get out."

When the principal finds that a teacher is performing inadequately, the teacher should be placed in a program of "intensive assistance." During this period, all observations, evaluations, and attempts at improving the teacher's performance should be thoroughly documented in writing. In the event that a teacher is dismissed and requests a hearing, this documentation is essential for building a fair dismissal case.

The first step in an intensive assistance program is to notify the teacher, in writing, that he or she is being placed in such a program to indicate what must be done to improve performance. The teacher should also understand, says Larson, "that if there is no substantial improvement, further action will be taken."

If more than one evaluator is to be involved, they should meet to develop performance objectives that the teacher will be expected to meet. The teacher should be talked to, and suggestions for improvement made. "Remember," says Larson, "it is incumbent upon the evaluator(s) to help the teacher improve."

Both the superintendent and the school board attorney should be involved early in the proceedings, especially if a fair dismissal hearing is likely. Once the principal decides to recommend dismissal, "the superintendent should meet with the teacher to indicate that he is aware of the teacher's unacceptable performance; to let the teacher know that continued employment is in jeopardy, and to point out that there must be a substantial improvement in the teacher's performance by a designated date." Most teachers will improve their performance during the intensive assistance period, Larson concludes, but, for those who don't, there is ample documentation for building a fair dismissal case.

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70 **Leichner, Edward C., and Blackstone, Sidney.** "Teacher Dismissal and Due Process." *Georgia Association of Middle School Principal's Journal,* 1, 1 (Spring 1977), pp. 51-69. 20 pages. ED 145 512.

In the past, when American society was much more unified in its goals than it is today, educators could—and often did—act in an arbitrary manner in teacher dismissal cases. Starting with the civil rights movement of the 1960s, however, the courts recognized that "teachers do not surrender their personal rights when they sign a contract to teach school."

Today, teacher dismissal laws—designed to ensure equity and equal protection—specifically define both teachers' rights and administrators' responsibilities in dismissal cases. In this article, Leichner and Blackstone review the history and legal development of both nonrenewal and dismissal laws and offer advice to educators contemplating dismissal actions.

Supreme Court actions in 1972 distinguished between the due process rights that must be afforded to tenured and nontenured teachers. When a nontenured teacher's contract is not renewed, a hearing is not required unless the nonrenewal decision deprives the teacher of either a "liberty" or a "property" interest. Any statement offered to the teacher must be carefully worded, the authors caution, to avoid charges that it damages "the teacher's standing and association in the community."

When dismissing tenured teachers, due process procedures must be followed, because the teacher is considered to have a "property" interest in continued employment. Teachers who have been reemployed for a number of years by the same board of education can be considered to be tenured by the courts, whether or not a formalized tenure policy exists. And, caution the authors, probationary teachers may be considered to have the same property interest "if employment practices clearly imply a promise of continued employment."

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71 **McDaniel, Suzanne H., and McDaniel, Thomas R.** "How to Weed Out Incompetent Teachers without Getting Hauled into Court." *National Elementary Principal,* 59, 3 (March 1980), pp. 31-36. EJ 219 612.

Existing state laws governing the discharge and decertification of teachers are often so complex and time-consuming that few administrators are willing to remove incompetent teachers from the classroom. The unpleasantness of this task, however, can be minimized with a clear knowledge of state laws and the helpful suggestions provided in this article.

State laws concerning dismissal vary considerably from state to state; the authors have chosen to carefully examine South

Carolina's dismissal laws as an instructive example for administrators in other states. In 1974, the South Carolina legislature passed the "Employment and Dismissal Act" to guarantee just cause and due process in dismissal cases and updated a similar law regarding decertification. The authors outline these laws in some detail, particularly in regard to the just causes that can be used as grounds for dismissal. Included are six questions established by the courts that must be answered in the affirmative before just cause can be established.

The authors recommend that principals in any state wishing to dismiss incompetent teachers "should keep substantial written files on all teachers who have obvious deficiencies or shortcomings." The files must include documentation of deficiencies as well as records of several observations and followup conferences, "so that a pattern of deficiency or incompetence can be established."

This requirement, the authors admit, makes the principal into a critic and evaluator instead of an instructional leader. Curriculum consultants or assistant principals may help fill the instructional leader role, but the authors recommend that the principal retain the role of an evaluator, "as the direct agent of the board and the superintendent in the school."

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72 **Munnelly, Robert J.** "Dealing with Teacher Incompetence: Supervision and Evaluation in a Due Process Framework." *Contemporary Education,* 50, 4 (Summer 1979), pp. 221-25. EJ 213 501.

Many teachers and laymen "honestly believe that teachers cannot be dismissed for incompetence or ineffectiveness" by school boards or courts of law. But the courts, say Munnelly, are not interested in preventing the dismissal of incompetent teachers. Instead, they are primarily concerned with assuring that due process procedures are followed.

In most cases, in fact, "the courts have tended to steer clear of making judgments about a particular teacher's competence, preferring whenever possible to accept the judgment of the local school administrators and school boards." Most cases in which school boards have lost dismissal appeals, continues Munnelly, have resulted from failure to follow due process procedures.

Due process is a constitutional right, guaranteeing fair procedural protection to all individuals subject to serious public action against them. Tenure is a specific guarantee of due process for teachers and was developed as a reform measure "to counteract the corruption of the spoils system" that flourished around the turn of the century.

Due process requires that teachers know clearly what standards of performance are expected by supervisors. It also gives teachers the right to be given appropriate feedback about their teaching, the right to a chance for improvement and assistance for that improvement, and the right to adequate time to carry out the improvement.

Administrators need not go out of their way to provide due process, contends Munnelly, for it goes hand-in-hand with effective supervision and evaluation. In fact, there is "broad philosophic agreement between improvement-oriented supervision and due process concerns." Neither the time commitment nor the priority rating assigned by the district to supervision and evaluation will necessarily be increased by attention to due process concerns.

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73 **Neill, Shirley Boes, and Custis, Jerry.** *Staff Dismissal: Problems & Solutions. AASA Critical Issues Report.* Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1978. 80 pages. ED 172 417.

Although superintendents and personnel directors estimate that 5 to 15 percent of the teachers in their districts give inadequate performance, less than .5 percent of the 2.1 million teachers in the United States are dismissed each year for not meeting district standards. Many factors contribute to this discrepancy, say Neill and Custis in this comprehensive report.

Administrators are often reluctant to tread through the complex procedures required for dismissal or are uncomfortable taking negative action against any employee. Often, too, administrators are "unclear about the way courts view dismissal" and have little practical court experience. To help administrators in the difficult task of dismissal, Neill and Custis discuss at length many of the legal aspects of the dismissal process, using dozens of case studies to illustrate their points.

In general, courts accept dismissal for two categories of causes: incompetence and "misbehavior and counterproductive conduct." Dismissal for incompetence is usually the more difficult, requiring notice to the teacher, time to improve, and complete documentation. A separate chapter is devoted to the legal safeguards necessary for due process to be satisfied.

Before dismissal proceedings are begun, administrators should consider some alternatives to dismissal, such as improving or retraining teachers and counseling incompetent teachers out of the system with, perhaps, some bonus pay "to sweeten the easing out process." Dismissal can also be avoided by better screening at hiring time and careful decisions to grant tenure.

Evaluation—called by some "the heart of the teacher dismissal process"—is discussed as both an important part of the teacher improvement program and as a necessary tool for making personnel decisions. Included in this excellent publication are three chapters that discuss staff dismissal in times of declining enrollment.

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74 **Palker, Patricia.** "How to Deal with Incompetent Teachers." *Teacher,* 97, 4 (January 1980), pp. 42-45. EJ 226 827.

Teachers, you may be surprised to hear, are as disturbed by the presence of incompetent teachers in their schools as are their supervisors. But compared to administrators, teachers have even less power to do something about the "bad apples" in their schools. Nevertheless, teachers, too, are finding ways to ferret out—or improve—incompetent teachers. Palker here reviews some of these teacher-based strategies and provides an instructional glimpse of incompetent teachers through the eyes of their peers.

Incompetent teachers are often not happy in their jobs. They may feel insecure and thus may be threatened by approaches from other teachers to help them improve. This psychological profile

provides the basis for Palker's primary strategies: either help the incompetent teacher leave the profession in a graceful manner, or provide help for the teacher in a nonthreatening way.

Teachers can "push for an early retirement plan" that "allows 'tired' teachers the chance to leave with dignity." Or they can "sponsor a speaker who specializes in helping teachers find other jobs." Other collective actions teachers can take are trying to get more professional development time, starting a teacher center, or trying "to get the administration to hire resource teachers, whose job it would be to visit classrooms and offer teachers new strategies."

As individuals, teachers should first talk to their supervisor about an incompetent colleague. "It is not unprofessional," Palker emphasizes. If administrators won't help, teachers should directly approach incompetent teachers. Palker has a wealth of tips here: "Be diplomatic. Volunteer to exchange materials and methods, always asking for help yourself." "Be nonthreatening. . . . Boost egos." "Give that person a model." "Be specific in your criticism." Palker also gives a rundown of the continuing "pass the buck" debate over incompetent teachers between administrators and unions.

75 **Pellicer, Leonard O., and Hendrix, O.B.** "A Practical Approach to Remediation and Dismissal." *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 434 (March 1980), pp. 57-62. EJ 217 709.

A common dilemma of principals is deciding what to do about teachers who are not meeting job expectations. To help simplify the process of remediation and dismissal, the authors here present "a blueprint for principals" that both ensures due process for teachers and encourages professional and ethical conduct by principals.

Once a teacher's shortcomings are confirmed by both the principal and "an independent, impartial observer," a remediation program should be planned and implemented cooperatively by the teacher and principal. To help in this process, a six-step "diagnostic prescriptive approach to remediation" is outlined by the authors and illustrated with a step-by-step example.

First, deficiencies are identified as specifically as possible and then "keyed to some widely recognized standard of professional performance," such as the "Professional Practices Council Standards" of Florida. Next, the principal and teacher work together to develop a set of objectives for improvement, identify the strategies and resources that can be used to reach the objectives, and establish a time frame for implementation and achievement of the objectives.

During the entire remediation effort, the principal must both demonstrate and document that "he or she has provided adequate and appropriate assistance, resources, and encouragement." A sincere, good faith effort at remediation is absolutely essential, the authors emphasize.

If remediation is not successful, the principal may decide that dismissal is necessary. To demonstrate both due process and good faith, the employee's personnel file should contain specific written information, including evidence of the deficiencies from one or more educators; recommendations from the principal to the teacher for improvement or correction of each deficiency, including strategies, resources, and time frames for corrections; and evaluations reflecting the deficiencies.

76 **Roney, Robert K., and Perry, Irma O.** "Tenure Laws and Incompetency." *NASSP Bulletin,* 61, 406 (February 1977), pp. 45-50. EJ 160 385.

Administrators must take several vital steps to ensure that a dismissal case is both "bonafide and can be clearly produced." To establish a bonafide case, there must first be "incompetence," and to have incompetence there must first be a definition of competence. Vague as this term is, the authors maintain, the lack of a reasonable definition will cause dismissal cases to fail.

Courts will accept a definition of incompetence as long as it "is clearly stated so that it is reasonable to expect that a person knowledgeable in the profession could accurately and fairly interpret it." For example, if an administrator feels that a teacher is not applying acceptable methodology, that opinion must be backed up with supportive data from the educational literature or from other educators.

Once discrepancies between a teacher's performance and accepted practice have been identified, the administrator has a responsibility to inform the teacher of these discrepancies and help him or her improve. But if continued evaluation indicates that the teacher has failed to come up to standards after assistance has been given, the board and administrators should move to dismiss the teacher.

When dismissal actions are taken against teachers, state statutes must be strictly adhered to. The board must furnish proper and sufficient notice of dismissal actions against a teacher, and tenured teachers must be provided with a written list of charges against them. The hearing must also be sufficient in the eyes of the court, and teachers may be represented by legal counsel if they choose.

77

Rosenberger, David S., and Plimpton, Richard A. "Teacher Incompetence and the Courts." *Journal of Law and Education*, 4, 3 (July 1975), pp. 469-86. EJ 122 515.

Competency is an inherently vague concept, because so much of what is considered to be competent behavior is the manifestation of something even vaguer—common sense. As such, the authors report, the courts "have been more disposed to rule teacher incompetence in a broader context, according judgment on the unique facts of the case."

This article is a review of dozens of incompetency cases brought against tenured teachers. It is designed to give school administrators some idea of the charges and evidence that may be acceptable in such cases.

When boards prepare charges indicating incompetency, the reasons given must be fairly specific, but "they are sufficient if they are made in simple language and are broad enough to fairly advise the employee of their nature" so that the employee can prepare a defense. Acceptable causes for dismissal fall into the four categories of knowledge of subject matter, teaching methods, effect on pupils, and personal attitude. For each of these causes, the authors review many individual cases and the specific reasons for dismissal used in each.

The evidence necessary to show incompetence is reviewed in a like manner. Evidence is generally presented through testimony. Professional educators such as principals, teachers, and superintendents are the most common witnesses, and their testimony "is generally receivable." Testimony from students is also acceptable, though much less prevalent, while testimony from fellow teachers and community members is quite rare in case law. Also reviewed are charges and evidence of incompetence that have failed to gain court acceptance.

78

"Why School Boards Can't Simply Fire Poor Teachers—and What to Do about It." *Updating School Board Policies*, 8, 10 (October 1977), pp. 1-4, 6. EJ 167 819.

Before turn-of-the-century legislatures passed tenure laws to protect teachers, school boards often treated teachers in an unjust, capricious manner. Today, however, many school administrators and laymen claim that "tenure laws have outlived their purpose" and that they "permit incompetent teachers to stack up in school corridors like so much dead wood." Although a trend to modify or even abolish tenure laws was predicted in the early 1970s, the trend never materialized. Tenure laws continue to grow stronger, not weaker.

Tenure, however, is an oft misunderstood concept, states this article. Contrary to the popular conception, "tenure is *not* a lifetime contract." Instead, it is simply a guarantee of due process for teachers, giving them assurance that they will not be fired without specific, verifiable charges being presented and both a fair hearing and provision for appeal being offered.

Tenure can be favorably administered, this article contends, through "strong board policies on staff evaluation and dismissal." A consistent and reasonable evaluation process, combined with honest efforts to help teachers improve their teaching, are the keys to a successful evaluation process. Even teacher unions will welcome the opportunity to remove dead wood from their ranks, as long as the steps of due process are followed religiously.

Included with this article is a useful set of guidelines regarding the dismissal of tenured teachers, compiled by school law and personnel specialists. For example, guidelines must be specific, and data on deficiencies must be extensive, specific as to dates and times, and well documented. Several other guidelines detail additional legal responsibilities the board must meet in the dismissal process.

6 Educational Vouchers

79 **Billet, Leonard.** *The Free Market Approach to Educational Reform.* Santa Monica, California: Rand Corporation, 1978. 40 pages. ED 166 824.

"It is a notable irony that in this presumably most free enterprising of all nations, the idea of a 'free market approach' has only in recent decades been seriously considered as a potential basis for organizing or reorganizing the provision of primary and secondary education for the vast majority of American children." But, although there is now increased interest in voucher systems and other free market approaches to educational reforms, says Billet, the public's understanding and acceptance of these approaches are often limited by market concepts that are "too narrowly economistic to encompass the moral and idealistic elements in educational life."

To help fill this void, Billet here reviews the philosophies of the "progenitor of the voucher idea," Adam Smith, from whom he believes contemporary reformers "have something to learn." He also examines the "presumed origins, leading implicit and explicit justifications, key notions, and potential social consequences" of the free market approach.

In this paper Billet is certainly successful in fulfilling his stated aim of enriching and extending the discussion of free-market educational reform: his presentation is full of intriguing philosophical inquiries into the justifications for and potential effects of free market educational delivery systems.

Among the issues of democracy addressed by Billet are equality and inequality in American education, the education of black children from low-income families ("undoubtedly the greatest disaster area in public education"), racial integration, and the myth of "social mixing" in public schools. Also discussed are the moral basis of education in a free market system, and market concepts such as consumer choice, competition, and profit and loss.

80 **Bridge, R. Gary.** "Parental Decision Making in an Education Voucher System." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1974. 32 pages. ED 098 656.

Parental decision-making is the key to any voucher system. But do parents wish to make decisions about their children's education? If so, what areas do they wish to influence? And what are the factors that influence their decisions?

Bridge here explores these questions and their answers, using data from two parent surveys conducted at Alum Rock (California) in the falls of 1972 and 1973. In addition, he discusses the more fundamental question of whether educational decisions made by parents are necessarily the best for their children.

Generally, parents whose children were participating in the voucher program showed an interest in exerting influence on school decision-making. This tendency increased both with the educational level of the parents and with their level of awareness of the voucher program.

Initially, the factor that most influenced school choice was the school's location. During the experiment's first year, 90 percent of the children attended the school nearest their home. But the influence of location decreased after the first year, whereas curriculum, a child's satisfaction with a program, and a child's test scores increased in importance.

But what of the quality of parental decisions? On the one hand, parents know a great deal about their children's interests and abilities, and they presumably know what they want for their children. On the other hand, experienced professional educators should know how different children respond to different instructional settings. The problem, concludes Bridge, is to bring together these two sources of information.

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81 **Butts, R. Freeman.** "Educational Vouchers: The Private Pursuit of the Public Purse." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 61, 1 (September 1979), pp. 7-9. EJ 206 293.

"Common civic values." "A common national purpose." "The democratic civic community." These are the terms that Butts returns to again and again in this critique of voucher systems and the "cultural pluralism" that they would foster.

"The basic reason why the founders of this Republic turned to the idea of *public* education is that they were trying to build common commitments to their new democratic *political* community." The political purpose of the public schools was originally to counter loyalties to families, kinfolk, churches, neighborhoods, and ethnic traditions, and to build instead a loyalty to a common "democratic political community" and its values of "freedom, equality, justice, and obligation for the public good."

Voucher systems, Butts insists, would aid private interests and would destroy the common national purpose. "Privatism is in the saddle and galloping in a peculiarly ominous way, and a voucher system might just make the race irreversible."

In fighting against vouchers, public educators should not take a "purely defensive stance of apology for the Establishment." Rather, they should actively voice the primary purpose of public education and should recall schools "to their historic purpose of promoting the ideals of the democratic civic community."

Parental participation in education and innovation in education should be encouraged. But "state policy should *not* be designed to encourage families to promote any kind of education they may devise." Rather, innovation and experimentation should be undertaken to engender a "diversity of approaches to the *common goal* of developing informed, committed, and responsible citizens for a democratic political community."

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82 **Cohen, David K., and Farrar, Eleanor.** "Power to the Parents? The Story of Education Vouchers." *Public Interest*, 48 (Summer 1977), pp. 72-97. EJ 165 160.

The original goal of the Alum Rock voucher experiment was to promote competition in the educational sector by giving parents a choice of the schools their children attend. The roles of teachers, administrators, and parents were to be reconceptualized and parents were to be the big winners. In reality, however, "the role that had initially been conceived as a reform was progressively redefined until it was hardly distinguishable from long-established and accepted practice."

For example, after the first year's trial, teachers and administrators insisted on enrollment limits for each school, so that more-appealing schools would simply spill over into less-appealing schools. California legislation passed in 1973 finally allowed public moneys to flow to nonpublic schools, but only to schools under the exclusive control of local authorities. Moreover, participating schools were subject to district rules concerning curriculum, teacher certification, and discipline.

The principals of the participating schools "vigorously resisted publishing comparative information that might encourage competition among schools." Parents did not take advantage of their opportunity to gain power, preferring their traditional roles instead.

The voucher plan *did* allow more curricula diversity and parental choice to develop in the district, and it also increased teachers' abilities to choose and design their own instructional settings. But these improvements were *not* due to competition, the authors emphasize, but instead were the results of decentralization and the institution of minischools in the participating schools.

The disparities between proposed theory and existing reality are amply pointed out in this interesting article. In the one actual test of the voucher system at Alum Rock, "local forces tended to overwhelm federal priorities." Included in this wide-ranging article is a history of the development of the voucher concept.

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83 **Coons, John E., and Sugarman, Stephen D.** *Education by Choice: The Case for Family Control.* Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1978. 249 pages. ED 165 249.

Can an education voucher system uphold both the socialist ideal of equality and the libertarian ideals of freedom of choice and marketplace competition? The authors believe so and in this wide-ranging book outline their voucher proposal—the Quality Choice Model (QCM)—that would allow greater diversity in education while assuring each family equal power in choosing schools. In addition, the authors examine the issues involved in instituting a system of family choice in education, address head on the objections to such systems, outline several proposed voucher plans, and call for greater experimentation with family choice models.

Under the QCM (formerly called "family power equalizing" by the authors), participating schools could charge whatever tuition they wished within a stipulated range (for example, $800 to $2,500 per year). Each family would choose a school (either public or private) for their child according to both that school's tuition level and the school's approach to education.

In return, each individual family would pay according to the tuition level of the school it picked and according to the family income level. Thus, wealthier families would pay more for the same level school, yet all families would have a choice of levels, and all would pay more for access to higher levels. Experimentation and monitoring would eventually lead to a precise equalizing system.

The authors note that precedents for family choice systems exist in the food stamp program and the Medicaid program. Only public education remains compulsory and standardized. Experience with choice systems has also been gained through the G.I. Bill and the Alum Rock voucher experiment.

A common criticism of voucher systems is that they would promote segregation. But the authors believe that "integration might become more successful as families think relatively less about race and more about teachers, curriculum, and style." They note that no serious study has been done to test this idea, but a few open enrollment plans have led to increased integration.

Most of this book is devoted to a discussion of the design of the instruments of choice, such as admissions policies, consumer information, mechanisms for fair selection, transportation, teacher certification, transfer policies, regulation of competition, and the governance and formation of schools of choice. In addition, the authors deal at length with the philosophical issues of equality, freedom of choice, and the child's best interests.

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84 **Ewanio, Richard, and Lane, John J.** "The Tuition Voucher: What It Means for the Business Manager." *School Business Affairs*, 47, 3 (March 1981), pp. 7, 19, 27. EJ 245 727.

"From the business manager's perspective," state Ewanio and Lane, "vouchers make each school system a nonprofit organization which must generate its income based on its ability to attract and retain students." The implications of such a change for the planning function of a district's business manager "are nothing short of horrendous." In this article, Ewanio and Lane discuss some of these implications, outline the historical development of the voucher concept, and enumerate the pros and cons of voucher systems.

Advocates of vouchers claim they will provide parents with "a genuine qualitative choice in the education of their children." Opponents contend that voucher plans presume "incorrectly that parents are able to select the best education for their children."

Vouchers will provide money for sectarian causes, say opponents, including those on the "lunatic fringe." Vouchers will give parents freedom to choose the kind of education their children receive, counter proponents. In short, advocates believe vouchers will revitalize American education, while opponents believe they "will sound the death knell of the public schools."

Under the present system of compulsory school attendance within a given geographical area, the district's planning process benefits from "a relatively high degree of predictability." Under a voucher system, however, great uncertainties would exist concerning projected enrollments and revenues. These uncertainties, in turn, would make planning for needed staff and facilities nearly impossible. Planning for food, services, insurance, materials purchasing, maintenance, and transportation would be equally uncertain.

The authors conclude with a call to business managers to speak out on the formulation of voucher plans, particularly in the areas of fiscal management and responsible planning.

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85 **Fowler, Charles W.** "Must Voucher Plans Kill Public Schools?" *American School Board Journal*, 167, 1 (January 1980), pp. 34-35. EJ 212 396.

How would a voucher system affect today's public schools, boards, and administrators? For a handful of school districts—namely those already using open enrollment plans and school site budgeting, Fowler says "the effects of a shift to a voucher system would be minimal."

For the rest of the nation's school systems, however, "vouchers would represent a wrenching departure in school finance and school decision-making practices." Fowler here discusses some of the issues and questions that districts would have to face were a statewide voucher system implemented.

Much of the voucher debate centers on the question of whether independent and parochial schools would be able to accept and cash vouchers. If current constitutional interpretations are sustained, says Fowler, vouchers would not be available to parochial schools. And independent schools would likely shy away from vouchers and the state control that would accompany them. Fowler's viewpoint on this issue is clear: "As a matter of constitutionality and good public policy," he states, "vouchers should be restricted to public schools."

Contrary to the views of most other observers, Fowler sees vouchers having little influence on the governance of schools. In some ways, a voucher system would be "similar to the way a number of states finance their system of *higher* education," he explains. School boards would lobby the state legislators instead of their local constituency for funding increases. The board could even "find itself with an expanded policy-setting role." Superintendents, however, would become "entrepreneurs" and would have to deal with all the "imbalances" of running a consumer-oriented educational system.

86 **Levinson, Eliot.** "The Alum Rock Voucher Demonstration: Three Years of Implementation. The Rand Paper Series." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, San Francisco, April 1976. 37 pages. ED 122 430.

"After three years of operation," states Levinson, "the basic changes envisioned prior to initiation of the [Alum Rock voucher] experiment have not occurred as planned." In this paper, Levinson both explores the reasons for the attenuation of voucher theory at Alum Rock and outlines the history of the voucher program there.

In early 1972, the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) had to find a voucher experiment site or lose its funds for the experiment. Five other districts that had conducted feasibility studies (funded by OEO) had refused to proceed for various reasons. Only Alum Rock was left. Thus, to get its foot in Alum Rock's door, the OEO accepted a substantially compromised voucher plan, with the hope that true voucher theory could later be instituted.

The voucher theory components that were finally adopted were implemented sequentially: minischools were emphasized in the first year, budget systems in the second, and program evaluation and parental information in the third. Given the complexity of the situation, this sequential approach was understandable, says Levinson, but the result was that "at no time were all of the components that comprised the voucher system in operation together."

At the time of this three-year report, recentralization had already begun to occur. Teachers and principals were ridding themselves of unpleasant aspects of the voucher system (such as competition for enrollment and increased responsibilities for budgeting) while retaining some of the advantages (such as minischools and participatory decision-making).

In short, the implementation of true voucher theory largely failed at Alum Rock, but the experiment is of interest in its own right as an example of what happens when organizational innovation is attempted in an educational system. Levinson gives one of the better analyses of what happened at Alum Rock during the early years and discusses the many lessons to be learned from the experiment.

87 **Lindelow, John.** *Educational Vouchers.* School Management Digest Series 1, No. 17. Burlingame, California: Association of California School Administrators, 1979. Prepared by ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon. 63 pages. ED 173 889.

At the heart of the voucher concept is the issue of choice. A constant tension exists in the United States between the ideas of cultural pluralism and national unity. How much diversity and choice can be provided without totally fragmenting national consensus?

This is one of the central themes that runs through this comprehensive monograph on educational vouchers. Other important issues dealt with are church-state conflict, desegregation, school finance reform, and the equalization of opportunity.

"Most simply," says Lindelow, "education vouchers are certificates that the government would issue to parents, parents would give to the school of their choice, and the school would return to the government for cash." Beyond this common definition, however, voucher proposals differ widely. Most recent proposals are revised or regulated versions of the capitalists' "pure" voucher, and many have additional provisions "tacked on," such as the abolishment of property taxes.

Lindelow reviews the history of the voucher concept and related developments, such as the "church-state wall" and school finance reform, and then describes experience with programs that utilize one or more components of voucher theory, such as the food-stamp program, the G.I. Bill, day care tax-credit provision, the "nonoperating" school districts of Vermont and New Hampshire, the "Free Schools" of Denmark, and open enrollment within the public system. Finally, the so-called "voucher experiment" at Alum Rock (California) is described in some detail.

A chapter entitled "proposed models" describes voucher systems ranging from Milton Friedman's unregulated system to the "regulated-compensatory model" proposed by Christopher Jencks. A substantial portion of this chapter is devoted to discussion of the "voucher initiative" that failed to qualify for the June 1980 California ballot. A final chapter discusses several problems with which any voucher system would have to contend.

88 **Mandel, David.** "Schools on the Market." *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 3181 (May 21, 1976), pp. 20-21. EJ 149 214.

Parents seem to be well-satisfied with the voucher experiment in the Alum Rock (California) school district, particularly regarding the opportunity it gives them to choose their child's school, observes London *Times* correspondent Mandel. In addition, most participating teachers have responded favorably from the start. It is easy to see why: teachers usually work with colleagues who share the same educational philosophy, and they teach students who are there by choice (or at least by their parents' choice). They have acquired greater influence over budgeting, curriculum, and new teacher hiring as well.

Student achievement, Mandel notes, has not changed discernibly at the participating schools. In addition, no hucksterism or increased segregation have developed in the system, as some critics predicted.

In the Alum Rock voucher system, parents receive a voucher worth the average cost of education in the district. If the family is considered disadvantaged, the voucher is of greater value. Participating schools are required to accept all children who apply, as long as space permits. When oversubscribed, the school holds a random drawing for places. Free transportation is provided to all students who need it, and students can transfer schools at any time.

The fourteen participating elementary schools are subdivided into fifty minischools that differ either in teacher style or curriculum emphasis. No private schools have become a part of the experiment, though the original plan called for their inclusion. Thus some observers have concluded that the voucher system was never really tried at Alum Rock and that simple diversity can be created without a voucher system. Mandel argues, however, that a voucher plan allows consumer input that creates a better match between supply and demand.

89 **McGuire, C. Kent.** *Education Vouchers. Working Paper in Education Finance No. 23.* Denver: Education Finance Center, Education Commission of the States, 1979. 25 pages. ED 189 715.

The first proposal for using a voucher system to finance education was apparently made by Adam Smith in 1776. Modern development of the voucher concept is usually credited to Milton Friedman, who in 1962 proposed a completely unregulated voucher system that would structure educational delivery according to free market principles. In the 1960s and 1970s, several regulated voucher systems were proposed, and a partial experiment with one such system was completed at Alum Rock, California.

In this background paper for the New York State Task Force on Equity and Excellence in Education, McGuire clearly and concisely explains these and other events in the history of the voucher concept, describes just what vouchers are and how they differ from present forms of educational delivery, and discusses the pros and cons of educational vouchers. The author then addresses a series of difficult and important questions raised by voucher proposals.

One of the more important concerns of voucher opponents is the potential impact of vouchers on attempts to integrate American society. In theory, if schools are to compete effectively in the open market, "they must remain free of government regulation that could impair their ability to respond to market pressures." But the goal of integration, on the other hand, is only likely to be met with government enforcement of restrictions on the composition of schools.

Another major question concerns the church-state relationship. Is it desirable—or constitutional—to provide public funds for sectarian schools through vouchers? These and other questions, McGuire concludes, probably explain "why few experiments with vouchers have occurred and why none of them have developed into permanent methods of financing education."

90 **Pickard, Brent W., and Richards, Donald M.** "Educational Vouchers." *Canadian Administrator,* 15, 4 (January 1976), pp. 1-5. EJ 137 958.

The several model voucher systems that have been proposed share certain common elements. Each assumes that freedom of choice is the ultimate objective, yet each also sees the necessity for a government regulatory agency to both prevent abuses and disburse funds. Each also implies or expresses a belief in a free, competitive educational market.

Voucher systems also share the common goal of reducing inequities in the present system of financing education, primarily through provisions that would increase the share of resources available to the disadvantaged. All plans assure each institution enough money to provide programs comparable in cost with present programs, and some plans make it possible for institutions to receive additional funds to "remove the effects of wealth." Such plans, say some proponents of voucher systems, will raise society's total expenditure on education.

The authors note that voucher systems are basically designed "to provide funds for current operating budgets rather than provide capital funds." Thus some proponents have suggested that a loan system be set up alongside the voucher system for the establishment of new schools and facilities.

A major problem with voucher systems is ensuring that individuals make wise educational choices. Students are likely to choose a school because of its advertising or the success of its football team, rather than because of the quality of its educational services. The authors suggest that "it will require a great amount of time and effort before individuals will become wise purchasers of educational services."

Included are a discussion of vouchers in postsecondary education (specifically the G.I. Bill) and the use of vouchers for continuing education programs.

91 **Premazon, Judith, and West, Philip T.** "Requiem or Rebirth? From Voucher to Magnet." *Clearing House,* 51, 1 (September 1977), pp. 38-40. EJ 169 094.

Houston's magnet school concept "embraces the favorable aspects of the voucher system and minimizes or eliminates the principal objections to such a system." For example, the magnet program gives rise to a variety of educational programs, but each program can survive only if it can attract and retain its clients. Parents must decide which, if any, magnet schools their children will attend.

In addition, the authors state that "what was conjectured about discipline in voucher schools has become a reality in the magnet school"; that is, discipline problems have nearly disappeared in magnet school settings.

The Houston magnet schools are also maintaining desegregation—each school is required to maintain the court-mandated ethnic mix. Free transportation is offered to all clients in the district, so there is no restriction on choice due to location.

As opposed to voucher systems, the magnet schools do not depend on federal support. The authors admit that per pupil expenditures are greater for students who select magnet programs, but the district has decided that the benefits are worth the extra cost.

92 **Szanto, Hubert S.** "California's Voucher Plan: A Private School Principal's Critique. *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 437 (September 1980), pp. 93-98. EJ 230 146.

The "Initiative for Family Choice in Education"—a proposed voucher system for California—did not receive enough signatures to get on the June 1980 ballot. However, this measure or some version of it will undoubtedly come up again in California or some other state.

It is widely assumed, says Szanto, the principal of St. Michael's High School in Orange, California, that public schools are against such proposals and private schools are in favor of them. But in this article, Szanto points out several provisions of the California voucher initiative that would, if implemented, seriously threaten both public *and* private schools.

"Experience shows that if an institution accepts substantial funds from the government or from any other agency, that same institution will be regulated, influenced, and ultimately enslaved by the entity which gave it the money." Although the initiative assures there will be no interference, even a cursory reading tells otherwise.

For example, in matters of admission, a school could be requested by law to exceed its enrollment limit. In addition, lottery selection "could effectively remove from the hands of the administration a most important function: the selection of students considered to be proper material for a particular school." And what would members of a particular church do "if the lottery 'overlooks' them?" Other questions arise over certification, required standardized testing, and the initiative's confusing statement regarding the teaching of specific philosophies.

Another provision allows voucher schools to expel students "for grave or habitual misconduct." These students, of course, would be "dumped" on the public schools, which would be required to take them. Szanto discusses several other shortcomings of the initiative, including its abolition of property tax with no mention of "from where the money will come."

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93 **Wortman, Paul M., and St. Pierre, Robert G.** "The Educational Voucher Demonstration. A Secondary Analysis." *Education and Urban Society*, 9, 4 (August 1977), pp. 471-92. EJ 167 001.

Was the Alum Rock voucher experiment a true test of voucher theory? According to the authors, all voucher plans have four common features: parents are totally responsible for school choice, schools are financed only through vouchers, both public and private schools participate, and the resulting free-market system assures the survival of only the best schools.

But in the Alum Rock demonstration, the authors contend, "there was a great deal of slippage in implementing these theoretical constructs." Parents were indeed given a choice of schools, but a school's personnel, particularly the principal, decided whether the school would participate at all. So only some of the district's schools participated, and no private schools participated.

The other elements of voucher theory also experienced "serious erosion" in their implementation. Instead of each school or minischool becoming independent and decentralized, the central office deducted a "payback" fee from each voucher for centralized administrative services. The local teacher organization received an assurance of teacher job security in return for their support of the plan. In short, "the voucher demonstration was reduced to a form of 'open enrollment' or alternative education" instead of a test of a competitive, free-market system in education.

In addition to examining the mismatch between voucher theory and implementation, the authors discuss past analyses of student achievement data and their own recent (1977) reanalysis of those data. Their analysis indicates that a disproportionate number of brighter students enrolled in the innovative, nontraditional minischools. But after the first year, these brighter students were performing at a lower level than their peers in nonvoucher schools. This result, the authors note, is not surprising, considering the "lack of fit between the goals of these nontraditional programs and measures of academic achievement."

7 Energy Management

94 **American Association of School Administrators.** *Public Schools Energy Conservation Measures: Management Summaries.* Washington, D.C.: 1978. 20 pages. ED 164 339.

As part of the federally funded "Saving Schoolhouse Energy" project, ten representative elementary schools from across the nation underwent a "thorough and comprehensive engineering analysis" to determine areas of possible energy savings. Several "energy conserving opportunities" (ECOs) were identified at each site, and recommendations were made for actions considered cost-effective (initial investment recoverable within twelve years from the predicted energy savings).

The total projected costs of the recommendations at each site ranged from $1,000 to $80,000, with a mean expenditure of $25,000. The real surprise in this report, though, is the size of the predicted energy savings: "Preliminary projections suggest these expenditures will reduce energy consumption an average of 50 per cent across all ten sites."

The most frequent recommendations, and the ones with the quickest recovery rates, were to reduce outside air intake to minimum standards and to adjust various controls. Other suggestions included modifying the building envelope (increasing insulation and weather-stripping, decreasing glass surfaces), replacing incandescent lighting with fluorescent, modernizing and adjusting boilers and ventilation systems, and revising the occupied/unoccupied cycle.

The engineering analyses described here represent the first phase in the Saving Schoolhouse Energy project. Later phases include making the changes recommended in phase one, monitoring postmodification energy use, and disseminating the findings of the project. Brief descriptions of each school and the modifications suggested for each are contained in this report. Also included is an order form for ordering detailed reports of each school-site analysis.

95 **Askin, Ralph J., and others**. *California School Energy Concepts, 1978.* Sacramento, California: Bureau of School Planning, California State Department of Education, 1978. 49 pages. ED 165 341.

Before the advent of mechanical temperature-control systems, buildings were necessarily designed with climate in mind. With technological advances and the availability of cheap energy, however, an arrogant disregard for nature became stylish. Now, with the energy crisis upon us, "architects are 'rediscovering' many of the techniques for climate control that have existed since the time of ancient Egypt but that were discarded or lowered in priority during the era of cheap energy." This publication discusses many of these "forgotten" techniques of building design, along with many new ideas for reducing energy consumption in new and existing school buildings.

Among the traditional variables that should be considered in building design are site selection (topography, prevailing winds, trees, other buildings), orientation, building shape, landscaping (deciduous trees for shade, evergreens for windbreaks), insulation, and color (dark roofs and walls absorb more heat). Other measures that can be taken to reduce energy consumption include the installation of solar energy systems, the use of double sets of external doors enclosing unheated vestibules, the reduction of electric usage during peak load times when rates are higher, and the installation of heat recovery systems.

Heat recovery involves redirecting "waste" heat to places where it can be used. Much heat, for example, is lost in the exhaust air. A "rotary heat wheel," which rotates slowly between the exhaust and incoming air streams, can reclaim up to 80 percent of the heat and pay for itself in a few years. Included are tables outlining recent "energy responsive" projects in schools, section drawings of some energy-efficient schools, and a fifty-entry bibliography.

96

BRI Systems. *Encouraging School Transportation Effective Energy Management (ESTEEM). Fuel Economy Management Handbook for Directors of Pupil Transportation; School District Administrators; Transportation Department Management.* Phoenix, Arizona: 1977. 161 pages. ED 165 317.

"Reductions in school bus maintenance and fuel costs of 40-60 percent or greater were successfully achieved" in many of the nation's school districts after they implemented energy-saving programs, states this federally financed publication. With an abundance of useful suggestions, this handbook shows how nearly every school district can cut costs in many areas of their transportation system.

In purchasing, for example, savings can be achieved by selecting the most suitable and energy-efficient equipment available. Radial tires, diesel engines, streamlined buses, and electronic ignition systems all save fuel. Fuel should be purchased by the truckload to obtain discounts, and parts should be ordered for a full year to obtain the best price. Also, advises the handbook, equipment should be matched with conditions: "purchase the smallest bus with the smallest engine offering the most efficiency that fulfills transportation needs."

Driver attitude is another important factor in fuel economy. The driver training program should emphasize efficient driving methods, and driver motivation should be kept high. "Post weekly or monthly vehicle and driver fuel consumption lists," recommends the handbook, and attempt to create a spirit of friendly competition among drivers. Also, post charts comparing current fuel consumption with the district's consumption goals.

Bus idling time can be reduced by planning routes to make only right-hand turns, and by avoiding bus travel during peak traffic hours. Fewer buses can be used if staggered dismissal times are eliminated, and if bicycling and walking are encouraged.

Also discussed in this wide-ranging handbook are public relations programs for energy conservation programs, student participation programs, and guidelines for monitoring energy management activities.

97

"Bright, Light and Energy Efficient." *American School and University*, 53, 9 (May 1981), pp. 18-19. EJ 247 059.

The recently constructed Sharon Elementary School in Newburgh (Indiana) is designed to be as energy-efficient as is now technically feasible. The heating and cooling system for the 90,000-square-foot building can utilize three fuels—natural gas, oil, and propane gas. The system now uses natural gas, but it can be switched to oil or propane gas if these fuels become cheaper or more readily available.

The heating and air conditioning system is also designed to reclaim and recirculate heat. Exhaust vents are positioned directly above light fixtures, so that room air is warmed as it leaves. This warm air is directed to a heat exchange wheel that transfers the heat to incoming fresh air. Each room also contains a supplementary hot water baseboard heater, for days when the temperature falls below 40° F.

Energy is also saved in the lighting system. Parabolic reflectors on hall lights direct the light efficiently while reducing brightness and glare. Classroom lights can be turned on row by row, so that natural light can be utilized when sufficient. Skylights in the gym, cafeteria, and stairwells further reduce lighting needs. Heat loss from these skylights and the school's windows is reduced with doublepane construction.

School officials have also used psychology to make the classrooms seem warmer. According to a well-known interior design theory, bright colors make a room seem warmer. Thus, the classroom's fixtures are pleasant yellows, oranges, reds, greens, and blues.

98

British Columbia Department of Education. *Energy Conservation for Schools. 1978 Edition. Report Number 00654-78-09.* Victoria, British Columbia: 1978. 29 pages. ED 166 047.

By following the energy conservation plan outlined in this booklet, most school districts can reduce energy consumption by 20 percent. This figure is "not an exaggeration," the authors stress, but "can be attained and at a cost that would pay for itself in one to two years."

The first step is to appoint an "Energy Conservation Manager" to run the program. The energy manager could be an interested and motivated teacher, school board member, administrator, maintenance person, or even someone from outside the school system.

The energy manager should calculate the total energy consumed by each school in the district, using the three energy consumption record sheets provided in the booklet. One is for electricity consumption, another for oil and gas consumption, and the third for calculating both total energy consumption and the school's rating on an energy-use index (which corrects for differences in outside temperature).

With the information from the energy consumption record sheets, each school's energy use can be compared with the "energy consumption targets" provided in the booklet. These target figures reflect the "unit area energy consumption levels which should be attainable in a large number of schools without major capital expenditures."

The final step in this conservation program is to conduct an energy survey of the district's schools to identify areas where significant energy savings can be made. Experienced technical personnel—either from the district or from a consulting engineering firm—should conduct the survey and report findings and recommendations to the school board. Included is a list of conservation areas that the survey should cover.

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99 **Burr, Donald F.** "Creating Energy-Efficient Buildings." Paper presented at the American Association of School Administrators annual meeting, Atlanta, February 1978. 14 pages. ED 165 270.

Contrary to the popular impression, says Burr, the technology for making buildings energy-conservative is *not* twenty or thirty years in the future. Rather, that technology is available *now* and is probably the most developed area of energy conservation today.

One essential ingredient of all new building designs, says Burr, should be an energy (heat) storage system. Heat storage systems can use water, rock, or eutectic salts as their storage medium. Electrical energy can be purchased at night, when rates are much cheaper, and used to heat the rock, water, or salt for the next day's heating needs.

A water storage system is attractive because it can be linked directly to a hydronic (water-based) heating/cooling system in the building. Such a system can also be connected directly with roof-mounted solar energy collectors.

In most high schools, about 25 percent of all energy consumed is used to heat domestic hot water, primarily for showers. But about 80 percent of this heat can be reclaimed by collecting the waste water in an insulated storage tank and passing cold water through closed pipes in the tank.

Another "water idea" discussed by Burr is the use of an "on-site well with heat pump system." If ground water is available, it can often be circulated through a heat pump to help heat the building in winter and cool it in summer. Two wells are needed, says Burr, one for pumping water up, and the other for pumping the heated or cooled water back down (to minimize impact on the water table).

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100 **California State Department of Education.** *Energy and Water: Conservation Suggestions for California's Elementary and Secondary Schools.* Sacramento, California: 1977. 27 pages. ED 166 031.

The two keys to increasing energy conservation as outlined in this booklet are wise facility and equipment management and an energy education program.

Energy education should be designed to help students and teachers "develop the skills, knowledge, and attitudes they need to use energy resources wisely." An energy education program, however, should not be simply an "add-on" to the curriculum. Instead, it should be incorporated into the instruction of many subjects, including social studies, science, home economics, and mathematics. To help in implementing such a program, several sources of developed curriculum material and "teacher kits" are listed.

Since each school building is unique in both design and environmental setting, each school must be looked at individually to detect potential areas for energy savings. There are some steps, however, that all schools can take to increase their energy efficiencies. For example, roofs and exterior walls that are painted with a light, highly reflective color will reduce heat gain from the sun, as will shade trees around the building. Exterior glass areas can be reduced to the minimum necessary for "visual relief" and replaced with insulated walls. And incandescent lights can be replaced with fluorescent or other high-efficiency fixtures.

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101 **Council of Educational Facility Planners, International.** *Energy Sourcebook for Educational Facilities: An Authoritative and Comprehensive Sourcebook for the Design and Management of Energy Efficient Educational Facilities.* Columbus, Ohio: 1977. 275 pages. ED 147 996.

About one-third of all energy used in the United States is consumed in operating buildings, and educational buildings are the largest group of institutional buildings. Thus, "in schools alone, the potential for saving our finite resources is immense," states this comprehensive publication.

An initial unit discusses the development of an energy management plan for local school districts. An "Energy Management Committee" should first be formed to fulfill policy-making responsibilities for the program. Next, an "Energy Conservation Team" should be appointed and should include building principals; teacher, parent, and student representatives;

maintenance and transportation supervisors; and outside energy consultants. The team "should have operational authority over all aspects of energy management" and should be directly responsible to the policy committee. After appropriate inservice training, the team should analyze school energy use and then determine appropriate goals and activities.

The next two units discuss methods of collecting energy data and auditing energy use in the district. Extensive checklists, energy data forms, and illustrative graphs and charts are provided. Three auditing methods are presented: the "mini-audit," consisting of a one- to two-hour inspection by energy specialists; the "maxi-audit," a comprehensive examination of energy-use patterns by an engineering consultant; and the Public Schools Energy Conservation Service (PSECS) audit method, which uses a computer program to simulate energy-use patterns in school buildings.

Other units cover detailed conservation measures that schools can take, contracting for outside professional services, case studies in energy conservation in school districts, public relations programs, cost-benefit analyses for conservation programs, one state's energy conservation plan, and the energy policy of the CEFP/I.

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102 **Department of Energy.** *Energy Audit Workbook for Schools.* Washington, D.C.: Office of State and Local Programs and Office of State Grant Programs. 1978. 88 pages. ED 164 284.

"In a typical school," states this U.S. Department of Energy publication, "it is possible to save as much as 15% of utility costs through common sense actions without any appreciable capital expenditure." With a wealth of examples, checklists, and suggestions, the booklet shows how these savings can be achieved, as well as how *more* money and energy can be saved after wise investment in energy-efficient facilities and equipment.

The first chapter is a long checklist of simple procedural changes that can be implemented for little or no cost. Suggestions include the removal of unnecessary lights, the reduction of the hot water temperature to 110-120° F, and the judicious control of building temperature. The 144 practical suggestions are conveniently organized under important energy subheads, such as space heating, boiler use, air conditioning, ventilation, lighting, and kitchens.

The second chapter, which makes up the bulk of this workbook, outlines detailed step-by-step procedures for both analyzing energy use and computing the potential savings of particular energy-saving measures. Instructions are provided for filling out a removable "Energy Management Form" using electric and fuel bills as well as weather information.

Nine specific conservation "problems" are presented with a fill-in-the-blanks format. An accompanying example illustrates the computations.

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103 **Downey, Gregg W.** "Some Sunshine for Your Fiscal Life: Solar Energy Schools May Not Be As Far Off or As Blue Sky As We've Thought." *American School Board Journal* 164, 8 (August 1977), pp. 56-60. EJ 164 144.

"Most schools are naturally suited for the installation of solar equipment," states Downey, because they are generally well constructed, have flat roofs suitable for solar collectors, and have their peak energy demands during daylight hours—thus lessening energy storage requirements. Already, many schools across the country are using solar energy for water heating, space heating, and space cooling.

One solar energy firm estimates that 15 to 30 square feet of collectors are needed for each 100 square feet of building floor space. And cost quotes, says Downey, range from $6 to $20 per square foot, including installation. Thus, solar installation is fairly expensive; however, the operating costs for solar are much lower than for fuel-fired systems, so investment costs can be recouped after a few years.

For example, the school board of Florida (New York) commissioned a feasibility study to determine ways to cut down energy costs in an aging school building serving about four hundred students. The report suggested retrofitting the building to decrease heat loss and installing a solar heating system for a total cost of $80,000. With a projected fuel savings of 35 percent per year, the investment could be recouped by 1986, said the report, and even sooner if fuel prices continue to rise.

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104 **Kerns, Marilyn.** *Energy Conservation: An Examination of Energy Conservation Mechanisms As They Relate to School Districts in Region XI.* St. Paul: Educational Cooperative Services Unit, University of Minnesota, 1977. 68 pages. ED 164 297.

The first step a district can take to save energy is to develop a districtwide energy conservation plan. To help in this process, Kerns outlines two recently developed energy management plans: the Total Educational Energy Management (TEEM) approach, developed by the Colorado Department of Education; and the program developed by the Council of Educational Facility Planners, International (CEFP/I).

In both approaches, the working unit of the plan is an energy conservation committee, whose membership should include most or all of the following: district energy manager; superintendent; building principals; maintenance and transportation supervisors; business manager; energy consultants; utility company representatives; and community, teacher, and student representatives. In the TEEM model, the energy committee sets objectives, determines strategies and energy-audit methods, and arranges consultations with outside experts. Then building-level task forces are developed to implement the plans.

In the CEFP/I model, the programs and activities are both planned and implemented by the committee. The task committee reports directly to an energy policy committee, composed of board members, appropriate central office administrators, and energy experts.

The first action taken by an energy conservation committee might be to conduct an energy audit of the district's schools. She describes the same three auditing methods mentioned in CEFP/I's

Energy Sourcebook. Also included are extensive checklists of energy conservation measures that schools can take.

105 **Nanni, Robert.** "Plugging the Energy Drain." *School Business Affairs*, 44, 2 (February 1978), pp. 33-34. EJ 173 511.

Using a small computer system, two high schools in Illinois have considerably reduced their power consumption, says Nanni. The computer is responsible for shutting off and on the thirty-eight air-handling units in the two schools, which vary considerably in horsepower and areas served.

"The computer-controlled on/off cycle intervals vary according to the time of day, the day of the week, and the season of the year," says the author. During school hours, the computer turns each fan off for six minutes of each half hour. After 4 P.M., the fans are turned off for fifteen minutes of each half hour. Between 9 P.M. and 5 A.M., the fans remain off.

Every half hour, the computer provides a print-out showing which air units are on, as well as the following electrical-usage information: power consumption totals, kilowatt-hour usage, the peak demand limit, and "the plus or minus percentage of actual consumption versus demand limit." When electrical usage approaches the utility's demand limit (where excessive demand-cost penalties are incurred), the computer compensates by shutting down fans for longer periods of time.

Since the computer control system is "open-ended," the district is considering expanding its use to other power management areas, such as controlling the mercury vapor lamps in the parking lots and monitoring the school bus gasoline pumps.

106 "One Energy Miser's Plan." *American School and University*, 53, 8 (April 1981), pp. 64-65. EJ 247 055.

Would you like to be known as an "energy scrooge"? Robert Lorenzen, who is in charge of facility use and planning for Shawnee Mission School District in Kansas, is known by this title and is proud of it. He expects that energy costs at nine of his district's sixty-seven schools will soon be cut in half as the result of extensive retrofitting.

In response to rising energy costs, the district resolved to cut energy consumption 15 percent by 1985. The first step was a thorough documentation of each school's energy consumption with the help of a computer. Some initial measures were taken, such as setting back thermometers and recalibrating heating systems, but the big push came when matching federal funds for retrofitting became available.

The district hired a professional energy management consultant to study each school's physical plant and consumption patterns. The "heavily documented results" of the firm's study were then sent to the Kansas Energy Office and then on to the Department of Energy. One school was denied funding because its payback period was too long (nine years), but nine other schools were awarded nearly $350,000 in matching grants for retrofitting. The consulting firm, it should be noted, prepared the applications that won these grants.

Lorenzen saved another $50,000 in electricity costs during the summer with a "clean 'em up and lock 'em up" strategy. Instead of assigning one or two custodians to refurbish school facilities throughout the summer, a team tackled the job of cleaning ten schools and completed the task in less than twenty working days. All unnecessary equipment was then switched off.

107 **Peterson, Irving M., and Gates, Richard M., editors.** *Energy Conservation Guidelines—2: Energy Conservation in School Facilities.* Trenton: Bureau of Facility Planning, New Jersey State Department of Education, 1980. 21 pages. ED 194 356.

A school is a system composed of three main elements—a physical plant, people, and an educational program. According to this excellent guidebook from the New Jersey Department of Education, energy can be saved in each of these areas by modifying the physical plant itself, its operation, and the scheduling of the educational program.

"The educational program and schedule of daily activities are normally considered a stable factor around which all other elements in the school system revolve." But most programs and schedules, say Peterson and Gates, have some room for energy trade-offs. For example, activities taking place in the evenings or on weekends can be scheduled so that "all the spaces used are in a single heating or cooling zone," so the rest of the plant can be shut down.

Modifying the way the plant is run can result in large energy savings. Waste in energy used for lighting can be cut by reducing the number of lights, switching to efficient fluorescent bulbs, using natural light where possible, and starting a voluntary light turn-off program. Waste in heating and cooling can be cut by changing thermostat settings so that the building is cooler or warmer, but still within the "comfort zone." Reducing the intake of cold, outside air for ventilation can reduce annual energy consumption by 25 percent *with no investment*, according to one study.

Modifications to the physical plant can save even more energy, but do require capital investment. Peterson and Gates list numerous possible modifications for heating, lighting, and air conditioning systems according to whether they are low cost, medium cost, or high cost undertakings.

108 **Tetzloff, Richard D.** "Conducting Energy Audits of Your Schools, or 'The Last One Out of Town, Please Turn Out the Lights'." Paper presented at the National School Boards Association annual meeting, San Francisco, April 1980. 44 pages. ED 188 285.

The St. Cloud (Minnesota) public school district, like so many other districts, first became acutely interested in energy conservation during the fuel shortage of 1973-74. Rising fuel costs and a state mandate requiring energy usage studies of all public buildings further stimulated the district to hire a consulting engineering firm to conduct a comprehensive study of energy use in twenty of the district's buildings. Tetzloff here describes this energy audit in some detail and discusses other actions the district has taken to conserve energy.

Base-line data were collected during the fiscal year 1977-78. For each building, a "Total Energy Index" was computed as follows: the figures for fuel, electricity, and water consumption were converted into British Thermal Units, and then the total B.T.U.s were divided by the area, in square feet, of the building. Once the energy index was computed, a goal for energy reduction was set. The consulting firm projected that the base year's energy consumption could be reduced by 37 percent.

Next, the firm developed a plan to achieve this goal for each building. Each plan related "potential energy cost-savings to estimated expenditures necessary to achieve the savings," and it included or estimated the payback period for each modification. Tetzloff includes the detailed energy audit for one high school and the list of recommendations provided by the consulting firm.

Modifications to plumbing, heating, cooling, ventilation, and electrical systems accounted for most of the projected savings and had, for the most part, short payback periods. Modifications to the "building envelopes," however, were quite expensive and thus had long payback periods: thirty and sixty years for secondary and elementary schools, respectively. Thus "building envelope retrofitting" was left for "a time of planned renovation and remodeling."

Tetzloff also discusses the district's recent implementation of a "computerized monthly energy monitoring and analysis program" and the importance of commitment to energy conservation on the part of all district personnel.

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109 **Tiedeman, Thomas V.** *An Energy Conservation Retrofit Process for Existing Public and Institutional Facilities.* Washington, D.C.: Public Technology, Inc., 1977. 127 pages. ED 161 763.

Can modifying existing buildings really result in substantial energy savings? According to Federal Energy Administration (FEA) estimates, "a building owner may expect to save 10%-20% in energy use without any initial cost, another 10% with minimal first costs, and 10%-20% more with an investment which can be paid back by savings in three to ten years."

In this publication, Tiedeman concentrates on those modifications that require some capital expenditure. Even if the funds available for retrofit are small, he emphasizes, viable conservation options are likely to exist.

The first phase in the retrofitting process is to determine the most energy inefficient facilities by studying past and current energy consumption patterns. Tiedeman presents three methods for conducting such a study, ranging from a "rough estimate" method to the sophisticated component-by-component method developed by the FEA.

When the facilities most appropriate for retrofitting have been identified, each should undergo a "detailed engineering and architectural study of potential energy conservation modifications." Detailed instructions for choosing consulting firms and evaluating their qualifications are included.

Once the retrofitting has been completed, it is important to monitor the results of the project to determine whether savings have actually been achieved. An added benefit of monitoring is that it becomes easier to identify whether retrofitting should be initiated on similar buildings in the future.

8

Managing Declining Enrollment

110 **Abramowitz, Susan.** "The Dilemma of Decline." Paper presented at the National Association of State Boards of Education annual meeting, Williamsburg, Virginia, October 1979. 13 pages. ED 184 233.

In the early 1970s, declining enrollments caught many educators off guard. Currently, most districts are still experiencing decline, but in other districts within the same state or region, enrollments might be increasing. In short, "growth and decline are occurring simultaneously" and many districts don't know what to expect next. These conditions, states Abramowitz, point out the need for improved educational management, particularly planning. In this document, Abramowitz outlines some of the actions that state governments could take to aid local districts in managing decline.

Most district managers are unable to make accurate predictions of future enrollments because of difficulties in obtaining and utilizing data about population and economic trends. These difficulties would be alleviated, says Abramowitz, if states developed reliable systems for the collection and dissemination of information on economic conditions, migration patterns, and other social and economic indicators.

States could provide other forms of technical assistance to districts as well, particularly assistance designed to improve management practices. The National Association of State Boards of Education, the National School Boards Association, and other professional associations could also help, says Abramowitz, by publishing information, holding seminars, and offering training programs and workshops on the management of decline.

Declining enrollments also threaten recent gains in affirmative action and special services. The state could intercede to protect affirmative action, Abramowitz contends, and could help alleviate the impact of cuts in special service funding by promoting the establishment of regional units or consortiums of districts among which the costs of these services could be shared.

111 **Bishop, Lloyd.** "Dealing with Declining School Enrollments." *Education and Urban Society*, 11, 3 (May 1979), pp. 185-95. EJ 205 697.

Before a school district can deal effectively with the complex political and organizational aspects of declining enrollment, it must have accurate data on future student enrollments and on the condition of all school facilities. Bishop here provides suggestions for solving these "technical problems of accurate data gathering" and discusses other general "strategies for dealing with decline."

Declining birthrate is of course the primary cause of enrollment declines nationwide. But locally, other demographic factors may be at work and should be considered carefully to obtain a more accurate enrollment forecast. Bishop lists many of these factors, including residential housing patterns, local building costs, in- and out-migration, multiunit housing development, and past population trends.

After accurate data have been collected, the district should establish and publicize the criteria it will use to decide which schools to close. To reduce public outcry, "these criteria should be announced well in advance to the community so the ground rules are understood prior to any public report on the consolidation of schools." Criteria to consider include facility condition, the effect of closures on racial balance, physical and natural barriers in the community, and changed student transportation needs.

To ease the stress of closing schools, districts should solicit community and school personnel input through opinion surveys and advisory committees. "If these committees are open to wide community participation, they can provide an excellent means of providing various interest groups a platform for discussion," states Bishop, and thus can "defuse potential conflicts" over school closures.

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112 **Dembowski, Frederick L.** "The Effects of Declining Enrollments on the Instructional Programs of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Boston, April 1980. 24 pages. ED 184 208.

In recent years, numerous articles have been written giving advice on how to deal with the problem of declining enrollment. Most of these recommendations, however, have concentrated on the fiscal impact of declining enrollment, whereas the impact on instructional programs has been largely overlooked. To help fill this void, Dembowski conducted a nationwide survey of school districts to determine both the effects of declining enrollment on instructional programs and school administrators' responses to the problem.

Dembowski sent questionnaires to 320 school districts of varying size, geographical location, and "percent student population change (ADM) from 1970-1977" and received 95 responses. The survey showed that between 1970 and 1977 districts with declining enrollments had, in general, more dropouts, a higher median staff age, an earlier teacher retirement policy, increased teacher certification requirements, and more staff relocation than did districts with increasing enrollments. Districts with declining enrollments also tended to use alternative educational approaches more and to replace their instructional materials less often. Districts with increasing enrollments indicated less change in the quality of educational programs—either up or down—than did districts losing students.

Districts with high rates of decline were not reducing the number of courses they offered as fast as they were reducing the number of staff teaching those courses. "Apparently school districts are not reducing their comprehensive educational programs" if they can retain "teachers versatile enough to teach all these courses," Dembowski observes.

As districts decline in enrollment, the amount of space allotted to each instructional area does not increase, but instead stays about the same. Dembowski speculates that districts must be getting rid of excess space instead of expanding into it.

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113 **Eisenberger, Katherine E.** "How to Learn to Manage Decline in Your School System." *American School Board Journal*, 165, 7 (July 1978), pp. 36-38. EJ 183 255.

Long-range planning is essential for dealing effectively with declining enrollment. Yet a school board's decision on the district's long-range plan will be neither forceful nor consistent if voting is the primary method of decision-making. Developing a workable, long-range plan for dealing with declining enrollment, Eisenberger contends, requires a consensus-based system of decision-making. To make consensus work for something so extensive and complex as a long-range plan, Eisenberger suggests a "divide and conquer" approach to the decision-making process.

First a list of the proposed segments of the plan should be made. Sections on which everyone can agree should be put aside. Segments over which there is disagreement should be listed and a record made of the pros and cons for each. Next, areas of partial agreement in the pros and cons should be searched for. "This narrowing down," says Eisenberger, "creates a sense of progress and can generate a positive frame of mind."

The areas of greatest disagreement should be specifically identified, and discussion should focus on these areas until an agreement satisfactory to all board members is reached. "Objections occur for specific reasons," Eisenberger points out. "Identifying these concerns and finding ways to resolve them are essential to arriving ultimately at over-all consensus."

Once the entire plan is assembled, each board member should explain why he or she approves of the plan. "This final phase in the process is vital," states Eisenberger, "because it clarifies each board member's point of view, signals solidarity," and prepares the board for the important work of selling the plan to school personnel and the community.

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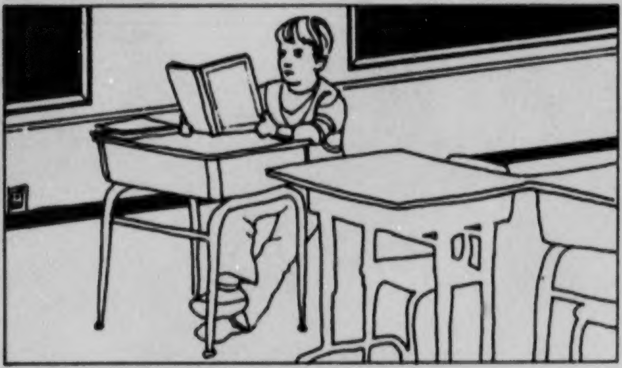
114 **Fredrickson, John H.** *Coping with Declining Enrollments.* 1980. 8 pages. ED 188 347.

"Depending on which 'expert' you believe," says Fredrickson, "the enrollment decline in America will continue virtually forever, or will turn around dramatically in the mid-80s, peaking once again before the end of this century." Whichever prediction comes true, if either, school administrators will be faced with the continuing need to make long-range plans for future student populations. And whether the enrollment is expanding or shrinking, Fredrickson emphasizes, the central objective of the long-range plans should be "the improvement of the curriculum *and* its delivery system."

An effective "master plan" for future enrollments should include both a "comprehensive statement of long-range goals" and a "strategy for their implementation." The first step in developing such a master plan is to review present programs and practices in the light of enrollment trends, statutory regulations, and potential innovations. Next, the district's school buildings should be examined and appraised. Communitywide surveys should then be conducted "to determine the economic growth potential and its resultant impact on local education in the future."

Student populations should be appraised annually and projections made. Buildings should be prepared for possible lease or sale, if necessary. Finally, "an ongoing public dissemination program of the school district's activities, concerns, and objectives" should be developed. Developing such a master plan is no mean task, Fredrickson points out, and "will involve many individuals and months of discussion, research, visitation and writing." Fredrickson closes with an explanation of how such a master plan might be applied to the problem of excess school space.



115 **Hess, Fritz; Martin, Wilfred J.; Beck, Jerry L.; Parker, Donald C.; and Lagoe, Ronald.** *Declining Enrollments: National Problem—Local Response.* East Syracuse, New York: East Syracuse-Minoa Central Schools, 1979. 50 pages. ED 172 398.

Most existing case studies of school district response to declining enrollment "bear a negative aura," say these authors. "They demonstrate how not to reorganize rather than how to reorganize, and overflow with laments concerning the difficulty of the process." An exception to this tendency is the case study presented here, which describes the "notable success" of the East Syracuse-Minoa (New York) school district's efforts to reorganize in response to declining enrollment.

Enrollment in the district peaked at 6,155 in 1971 and then began a steady decline. School officials in 1977 saw three alternative courses available to them: let the administration and board make the decisions on how to cope with the decline, hire a consultant to formulate a plan and sell it to the community, or "go the public, propose options, and do a lot of listening." The decision centered on the third alternative and probably accounted for the near lack of public resistance to the district's reorganization plan, completed eighteen months later.

District personnel first collected a wide range of information on the district's schools and on such space-related curricular topics as school size, class size, school organizational patterns, and ability grouping. Next, the board appointed a task force of citizens and asked the group to formulate a new district organizational plan that would be cost efficient and also maintain "the breadth and quality of the existing instructional program."

The task force's report, developed with a good deal of public input, was only the beginning of the planning process. Using board meetings in neighborhood schools, newsletters sent to all district residents, and a "Superintendent's workshop," the district maintained an open debate with the community concerning the possible reorganization options. Plans were altered and refined many times. The final formula for organization, which was "the product of countless revisions and reexaminations," was actually lauded by the public. The authors describe this planning process in great detail and include a lengthy discussion of declining enrollment from a national perspective.

116 **Iannaccone, Laurence.** "The Management of Decline: Implications for Our Knowledge in the Politics of Education." *Education and Urban Society,* 11, 3 (May 1979), pp. 418-30. EJ 205 703.

Normally, school districts and other political systems continue to operate even though fundamental, unresolved tensions remain in their political structures. "Declining enrollment problems tend to heighten or make manifest" these latent tensions, says Iannaccone. "The political nerve hit by declining enrollment problems everywhere—one of its universal political aspects—is the somewhat hidden political tensions already present in the local political system."

The management of declining enrollment would be easier if school administrators understood the politics of education, in particular the ways districts react to a stress such as declining enrollment and then eventually stabilize again. The patterns of reaction to such stresses have been studied in school districts, states Iannaccone, and many of these studies have predictive power. It is clear, though, "that educational administrators are either unaware of this body of research or do not make the inference needed to put the existing knowledge . . . to work as they address the problems of declining enrollments."

Part of this "existing knowledge" concerns the interaction of technical information and political values in the policy-making process. At each stage of the policy-making process, technical information (such as enrollment projections and facilities reviews) is used primarily "to crystallize political inputs to a policy choice." School administrators should remember that their role in dealing with declining enrollments is one of "political conflict management" and should avoid becoming "wedded to the implied technical solutions" to the problem.

In this interesting article, Iannaccone also critiques and reflects on several of the preceding articles in the same issue of *Education and Urban Society,* which describe how districts ranging in size from rural to large-urban have responded to declining enrollments.

117 **Mazzoni, Tim L., and Mueller, Van D.** "School District Planning for Enrollment Decline: The Minnesota Approach." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 61, 6 (February 1980), pp. 406-10. EJ 215 961.

School district planning in Minnesota has traditionally been decentralized. When Minnesota schools began experiencing declining enrollment in the early 1970s, however, this decentralized planning system failed to provide adequate guidance for a smooth transition to smaller school systems.

In the mid-1970s, the state legislature finally stepped in and passed three laws specifying planning and organizational procedures for the state's school districts. In this informative article, Mazzoni and Mueller detail these laws, describe the recent history of state responses to declining enrollment, and discuss the implications and future of state planning in Minnesota.

In 1971, when school enrollments were at an all-time high, the legislature passed its first bill to "cushion" a district's revenue loss resulting from declining enrollment. Between 1973 and 1977, several other statutes were amended or created to ease the impact of declining enrollment.

In early 1976, the legislature established the state's first school-planning law, which authorized the establishment of Educational Cooperative Service Units (ECSUs). ECSUs are designed both to encourage regional educational planning and to provide educational services on a regional rather than a local basis if students are better served that way. In late 1976 and 1977, the legislature passed other bills requiring districts to use curriculum evaluations and planning as well as comprehensive planning on both regional and district levels.

The authors draw three conclusions about Minnesota's response to declining enrollment. First, "it did not require a crisis for state government to respond to changed conditions" in Minnesota, though the state's response "was reactive, not anticipatory." Second, state officials provided leadership through the initiation of legislative responses, often in the face of substantial resistance from special-interest groups. Third, "political bargaining, not rational design, was the central dynamic of the policy-making process," a result to be expected from any legislative process.

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118 **Nowakowski, James A.** "Hidden Opportunities in Declining Enrollments." *American School and University,* 52, 8 (April 1980), pp. 40, 42s, 44. EJ 221 566.

A few of the complex problems facing school districts today "manage to be transformed by the passage of time into blessings rather than curses." Declining enrollment, says Nowakowski, is one of these rare problems. As a case in point, Nowakowski describes the innovative coping strategies developed in a suburban Chicago school district.

Leyden Township District 212 was experiencing declining enrollment and considered going to the "2-2 Plan" with its two high schools, separating the lower and upper classes into the two buildings. Instead, the district decided to stagger the schedules of the two high schools and bus some students back and forth to fill up classes in each building. "A student could be bused for courses from one school to another, losing only one period through the staggering instead of the two periods if both schools were on the same schedule," explains Nowakowski.

Several other advantages accompanied this arrangement. Each building maintained its identity, and more students had an opportunity to participate in varsity sports. Also, the district could make bus driving a full-time position instead of a part-time position, which made it easier to find drivers.

Leyden school district has alleviated its staffing problems with an innovative policy regarding leaves of absences. According to Superintendent David Byrnes, "the board encourages any teachers with tenure to take a leave of absence if they've been thinking about it for some time. We do this by offering to retain the tenure of that teacher."

The teacher can take an absence of one or more years and can return at the beginning of any school year without question as long as "the reduction of force hasn't reached his or her seniority level." So far, the policy is working, "despite the seeming risk involved in a board offering to retain the tenure of absent teachers."

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119 **Relic, Peter D.** "Don't Let Quality Fall with Enrollments." *American School Board Journal,* 167, 8 (August 1980), pp. 29-30. EJ 230 084.

According to a recent survey, school board members consider declining enrollment to be the number one problem in public education today. "But what really concerns board members," Relic contends, "is the effect declining enrollment will have on the *quality* of local schools." In response to this concern, Relic here offers several suggestions for helping school boards maintain quality secondary schools in times of declining enrollment.

An initial step is to define what is meant by "quality." "Are quality schools ones that produce students with a firm command of a few skills," Relic asks, "or ones that produce students with a broad background in numerous disciplines?" The board must decide and then use appropriate standardized tests to determine where the district's students stand. Board members should also pay close attention to other indicators of quality, such as the percentage of students graduating from high school each year, attendance statistics, and overall grade point averages.

Because fewer new teachers enter the school system in times of declining enrollment, teacher inservice training becomes particularly important for improving educational quality. Relic advises boards to make sure that funding is adequate for inservice training and curriculum development programs, to leave sufficient time in staff schedules for faculty study, and to tap all possible sources for ideas and development strategies for inservice programs.

Board members should also step up discussion with school officials, community members, and social science experts about why secondary schools are experiencing so much difficulty. Increased dialogue, states Relic, "will help educators discover answers to their questions about what has gone wrong with initiative, productivity, and creativity in the U.S." Once boards understand the problems, they can "move ahead with a redirection of purpose for schools."

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120 **Shaw, Robert C.** "How Accurate Can Enrollment Forecasting Be?" *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 439 (November 1980), pp. 13-20. EJ 234 125.

Over the past decades, several techniques for predicting future public school enrollments have been developed. The "Law of Growth" method, for example, "establishes an enrollment curve for the past and utilizes such factors as expected birth ratios, migration, retention, dropouts, death, public vs. private school preferences, and changing house patterns to determine the future configuration of the curve." Another, less sophisticated technique, called the "Method of Analogy," involves comparing one district to districts with similar characteristics and then making projections.

The method most frequently used, however, says Shaw, is the "Cohort-Survival Method of Forecasting," also known as "Composition Analysis." This method is "based on the calculation of a series of survival rates which indicate the fraction of students in one grade in a given year who 'survive' to the next grade." The method also takes into account the same factors that the Law of Growth method does.

But just how accurate is the Cohort-Survival Method? To find out, Shaw obtained six years of enrollment and birth data from forty-two Missouri school districts, and then made five-year enrollment projections for each district using the Cohort-Survival Method. He then compared the actual and projected enrollments for the target years.

"The overall range of forecasting error varied from −9.6 to 23.3 percent," Shaw reports. Some researchers consider a 10 percent error to be acceptable in enrollment forecasts. According to this criterion, over half of the suburban districts studied had forecasting errors that were acceptable, while over three-fourths of the "outstate" districts (those outside the two counties with the largest urban centers) had acceptable forecasts. Size of the district made no significant impact on the size of the forecasting error. Shaw concludes that the Cohort-Survival Method, despite its limitations, "remains a practical and accurate enrollment forecasting technique."

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121 **Wachtel, Betsy, and Powers, Brian.** *Rising above Decline.* Boston: Institute for Responsive Education, 1979. 200 pages. ED 180 082.

How can citizen involvement in decisions regarding declining enrollment be enhanced? This is the question both posed and answered in this publication by the Institute for Responsive Education, which was founded, states the preface, "to increase citizen participation in educational decision-making."

Powers opens the discussion with a description of the sequence of events in a typical community following the recognition that school enrollments are declining. The board usually appoints an advisory committee of prominent and responsible citizens to help the central administration plan for declining enrollment. Although the committees are supposedly autonomous, says Powers, "professional administrators usually end up playing a firm and controlling role in the preparation of advisory committee recommendations." As a result, when the advisory committee and school board present their recommendations regarding declining enrollment to the community, there is an uproar of protest over school closures and the lack of public participation in the decision-making process.

Powers argues that this kind of public resistance to policies "developed by professionals or professionally dominated committees in isolation from the community they serve" signals "a profound change in the political climate of education." Citizens are now demanding that they be involved in critical educational decisions, such as those surrounding declining enrollment.

The next six chapters of this book describe in detail the efforts of citizens and school officials in several communities to find solutions to the problems posed by declining enrollment. Reviewed by contributing authors are descriptions of responses to declining enrollment in Salt Lake City, Skokie (Illinois), the San Francisco Bay Area, Lexington (Massachusetts), Boston, and two rural districts in Iowa.

Wachtel concludes with an essay on ways to enhance community involvement in decisions about declining enrollment. Included are descriptions of methods and tools needed to plan for declining enrollment, suggestions for conducting community surveys, and numerous suggestions for further increasing citizen influence on the district's decision-making process.

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122 **Wendel, Frederick C., editor.** *Maintaining Quality Education in the Face of Declining Resources. Briefings in Educational Issues Number 2.* Lincoln: University of Nebraska, 1979. 141 pages. ED 176 366.

"Quality in the public schools, now and for the future, will depend in large measure on the quality of the planning which the society and educators provide." Planning is a key theme running through the nine chapters of this publication on managing enrollment decline, written by eight professors of education at the University of Nebraska (Lincoln).

The initial chapter describes the "critical realities" present in society that impinge on school governance. The conflict between declining enrollments and Americans' "bigger is better" ethic is discussed in the second chapter.

The third chapter explores in some detail systematic planning models. The five basic questions that structure the planning process are, Why? Where are we now? Where do we want to go? How are we going to get there? and, How will we know when we get there? The planning model developed by the New Jersey Department of Education is discussed in detail, and eight other planning models are listed along with availability information.

The next chapter outlines approaches to the reduction of services and programs. The four basic approaches described are "Amputate Selected Programs," "Trim Each Program," "Allocate Resources Based on Unique Needs of a Program," and "Combining Programs."

The remaining chapters discuss issues related to student activity programs, budget reviews, reduction in force, special education programs, and the long-range implications of declining enrollment. Included is an extensive fifty-page annotated bibliography.

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123 **Yeager, Robert F.** "Rationality and Retrenchment. The Use of a Computer Simulation to Aid Decision Making in School Closings." *Education and Urban Society,* 11, 3 (May 1979), pp. 296-312. EJ 205 698.

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In the early 1970s, the Unit Four School District in Champaign (Illinois) was experiencing declining enrollment and had decided that some schools would have to be closed. Yeager—a resident of Champaign and a doctoral student doing a thesis on the use of computers in social studies education—here describes the development of "a computer simulation of school closings" that was "developed to help the school board members evaluate the consequences of closing different schools."

To help decide which schools to close, the board established several criteria, including students' walking distances, number of students bused, maintaining integration, and condition of the facilities. Two things soon became obvious, says Yeager: many of the criteria were quantifiable, and the interactions among the criteria were confusing when more than one school was considered. Thus, with the support of the administration and many community members, a computer simulation model was developed and data collected for input.

"The Unit Four simulation was unique because it was designed to show the effects of closing more than one school at a time," states Yeager. "It allowed users to specify any combination of school closings and see what impact that combination had upon the school board's criteria."

The simulation used the PLATO IV computer system for two reasons: the system had powerful graphics capabilities; and, through a National Science Foundation grant, the system was already being used in the district to teach elementary reading and math. About forty PLATO terminals were already available in the district's eight schools, so the simulation was made available to any community member who wished to use it.

Interestingly, the school board's decision on which schools to close "did not appear to be affected by the data generated by the computer simulation." The simulation did have real value, though, concludes Yeager, because it provoked many discussions in which assumptions about the delivery of education were identified and debated.

Merit Pay Programs

124 **Bhaerman, Robert D.** "Merit Pay? No!" *National Elementary Principal*, 52, 5 (February 1973), pp. 63-69. EJ 077 855.

Bhaerman, research director for the American Federation of Teachers, distinguishes old-style and new-style merit pay plans for teachers. The traditional plan has used rating scales to assess teachers according to such criteria as classroom effectiveness, ethical and professional behavior, cooperation, and community participation. Its use has been limited to slightly over one hundred mostly small, wealthy, and suburban districts. The new-style approach, linked with behavioral approaches to education, emphasizes payment for objectively measured student achievement. So far its life has been one of proposals.

Both kinds of merit plans are fraught with problems. The most serious are the impossibility of making truly accurate judgments of teacher quality and the creation of dissension within the school, both among teachers and between teachers and principals. Bhaerman illustrates these problems with several comments from teachers and principals.

Evaluation is not the issue, Bhaerman stresses. Although teachers rightly reject evaluation that serves controlling and destructive ends, they welcome diagnostic evaluation, which serves "the goal of continuous growth of all teachers."

"Most teachers," Bhaerman states, "will not accept evaluation *for* merit pay under any circumstances." If administrators will listen to teachers, he concludes, they will hear, "Evaluation for constructive, diagnostic purposes, yes. But evaluation for merit pay? Never!"

125 **Bruno, James E., and Nottingham, Marvin A.** "Linking Financial Incentives to Teacher Accountability in School Districts." *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 10, 3 (Autumn 1974), pp. 46-62. EJ 107 287.

The present structure of labor-management relations in education, Bruno and Nottingham find, works against educational professionalization. The evaluation of teachers by administrators poses a particularly serious problem. The two propose in response a "profit sharing" incentive plan that they believe will not only improve teacher performance, but also foster collegiality.

Their plan, tested in the Norwalk-La Mirada, California, schools, links staff compensation with student achievement in a manner designed to avoid common merit plan problems. Instead of rewarding individual teachers, it rewards instructional teams (teachers, specialists, administrators, and aides) responsible for a given class, grade, or larger group of students. This team approach should encourage collegial interaction, functional specialization, and peer pressure for high performance.

Teams receive supplemental pay based on the percentage of students reaching a preset achievement distribution or goal. The plan's complicated nonlinear or exponential curve, discussed in detail, provides for increased incentives for teaching more difficult students. The plan thus accommodates students' individual differences.

126 **Deci, Edward L.** "The Hidden Costs of Rewards." *Organizational Dynamics*, 4, 3 (Winter 1976), pp. 61-72. ED 168 137.

Human resources theorists (notably McGregor and Herzberg) have questioned management's traditional reliance on extrinsic rewards and punishments for motivating workers. Such means, they charge, amount to seduction and rape and prove self-defeating in the end. What is needed is an emphasis on intrinsic rewards, which derive from the work itself. When work is challenging and invites achievement and growth, workers will motivate themselves.

Their work establishes the prime importance of work content for motivation and the danger of management's emphasis on external controls. Deci adds that pay incentives and other external rewards and punishments can be dangerous even when work is rich in intrinsic rewards. In this article, he sums up his important work in straightforward prose for an audience of business managers.

Deci attacks the common view that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards are compatible. According to this view, management can best motivate workers by making as many rewards as possible, both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, contingent on effort.

Deci finds that some extrinsic rewards can reduce intrinsic motivation, which he associates with basic needs to feel competent and self-determining. Extrinsic rewards, particularly such tangible ones as contingent payments and the avoidance of punishment, subvert a person's sense of self-determination and intrinsic motivation by making behavior dependent on external causes. The rewards shift the origin of motivation from within the person onto themselves; the rewards, and not the person's own interest, become the reason for the behavior.

Such a shift contaminates a worker's participation at work: he or she finds the rewards more important than the work itself and seeks ways to get them for the least effort.

Not all extrinsic rewards, Deci adds, are dangerous. Praise and support can enhance intrinsic motivation as they communicate that workers are competent and self-determining. The dangerous ones are those that serve mainly to control behavior, and among them are merit incentives.

127 **Educational Research Service.** *Merit Pay for School Administrators. ERS Report.* Arlington, Virginia: 1979. 127 pages. ED 173 902.

Can a school system be managed for performance, as a business can? Should effective administrators be rewarded with merit pay? If so, who should judge effectiveness, and according to what criteria?

The difficulty of answering these nagging questions, and many more like them, may explain "the history of some short-term successes and many long-term failures" with merit pay programs for school administrators. Perhaps what is needed is a comprehensive source of information on merit pay for school administrators that not only characterizes numerous existing programs, but pries into the reasons for the failure of these programs as well. If so, this ERS report fills the bill.

Noting a lack of current data on merit pay programs, the ERS in

1978 conducted a broad study of merit pay for school administrators, teachers, and school support staff. This volume reports the results for school administrators; it includes a description of thirty-five working merit pay programs for administrators and a review of the literature.

In April 1978, brief questionnaires were sent to all 11,500 public school systems in the United States with enrollment of over 300 pupils. Of the 2,800 responding districts, 434 currently had a merit pay plan, another 202 were considering such plans, and 112 had adopted, and then dropped, a merit pay program. The districts with merit pay programs or considering them are listed, and the data are further analyzed by district size and geographic region.

The literature review discusses merit pay and its relationship to management-by-objectives, describes how some districts have set up merit pay systems, explains some approaches to incorporating merit pay into the salary structures of school administrators, and describes the use of merit pay in business and industry. Eight additional examples of merit pay programs found in the literature are described.

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128 **Educational Research Service.** *Merit Pay for Teachers. ERS Report.* Arlington, Virginia: 1979. 126 pages. ED 166 844.

"Effective teachers are more valuable to an educational program than ineffective teachers and deserve to be paid more for their services." Many—perhaps most—educators would agree with this statement, which is the basic assumption underlying all merit pay programs for teachers. But how can such a program be administered? What criteria should be used? Who should judge competence? How much and how many should be paid?

Each school system, of course, must determine the answers to these questions itself. But this ERS report can be a big help. Contained in this comprehensive publication are the results of a national survey of merit pay programs conducted by the ERS in 1978; an extensive collection of examples of merit pay programs that are currently in use; and a review of the literature on merit pay for teachers, including extensive information on the pros and cons of merit pay, the reasons merit pay programs succeed (and, more important, why they fail), the opinion of educators and the public on such programs, and the use of merit pay in business, industry, and government.

The survey revealed that, of the 2,848 districts responding, 115 currently had a merit pay system, 135 other districts were considering such systems, and 183 districts formerly utilized merit pay. Reasons for discontinuing merit pay included administrative problems, personnel problems, collective bargaining, and financial problems.

The twenty-six examples of existing programs presented in the final chapter vary tremendously in their details and are grouped into eleven categories. Classifications include "merit increases determined by a point system," "merit bonuses with performance criteria," "ranges on the salary schedule for meritorious service," and "percent increases for meritorious service."

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129 **Geiger, Philip E., and Toscano, Gerald.** "If You Follow These Proven Guidelines, Merit Pay for Administrators Can Succeed." *American School Board Journal,* 167, 1 (January 1980), pp. 31-33. EJ 212 395.

What are the characteristics of successful merit pay programs for administrators? To find out, Geiger and Toscano studied numerous merit pay plans from districts around the nation. All the systems, successful or not, used some sort of management-by-objectives program to determine at least a part of administrative salaries.

The most successful merit pay plans had several other characteristics in common as well. In these districts, the superintendent had appointed a representative committee of administrators to draw up a merit pay plan. The superintendent was also "an effective leader who sold the incentive plan to his staff and worked to win school board approval."

The administrators in these districts voted on whether the plan would be adopted. Once the choice was made, however, *all* administrators had to participate. Like middle managers in private business, the administrators helped set their own performance objectives. Principals were given "full building-level responsibility . . . for hiring personnel, budgeting, deciding priorities, even writing press releases."

In the less successful plans, only about 10 percent of salary was earned on merit. But in the successful plans, up to 70 percent of administrator pay was based on merit. Another characteristic of successful plans was that only the superintendent knew "the numerical cutoff point for receiving merit pay."

In unsuccessful merit pay plans, the goals and objectives were overly broad, the plan was used by the superintendent for political purposes, and the plan failed to reward imagination and creativity. The authors conclude with descriptions of seven merit pay plans—some successful, some not.

130 **Keim, William E.** "Pennridge School District. How to Evaluate Administrative Staff: Recognizing Good Management." Paper presented at the National School Boards Association annual convention, Miami Beach, April 1975. 10 pages. ED 105 649.

Some writers have judged management by objectives to be the single most important development in management theory and practice. Keim believes that it will prove the same for educational administration. For Keim, management by objectives offers schools managerial efficiency and a sound method for evaluating and rewarding achievement. The Pennridge, Pennsylvania, schools have built their administrative merit pay plan on management by objectives.

The Pennridge plan, as Superintendent Keim reports, evaluates administrators according to both common and individual goals and objectives. An administrator can earn a total of 1,000 points: 750 points for ongoing administrative duties and 250 points for individual goals. The superintendent and his assistants evaluate all administrators at the end of each semester and can recommend bonuses of up to 5 percent of an administrator's base salary.

Goal setting, Keim emphasizes, is difficult and demands teamwork as well as individual work. (Keim stresses that the district fuses management by objectives and a team approach to management.) The district's goal-setting process calls for the administrators to meet as a team and in smaller groups to set common goals for all. Each individual then works up a set of personal goals and objectives for peer review. In one long group meeting, each administrator passes out copies of his or her goals to all and explains them, and the group rates them for priority. The group's ratings determine the point value for each objective in the administrator's individual set of goals.

Although management by objectives takes some years to mature, Keim states, it can be quickly started and bring immediate benefits. Keim notes that the Pennridge plan has from its start improved communication and the delegation of responsibility and heightened morale and trust.

131 **Latham, Gary P.,** and **Yukl, Gary A.** "A Review of Research on the Application of Goal Setting in Organizations." *Academy of Management Journal,* 18, 4 (December 1975), pp. 824-45. ED 168 135.

Supporters of merit pay programs often base their proposals on management by objectives borrowed from business and industry. Humanist critics respond that such management methods are misapplied in education. Schools are not factories or businesses, these critics argue. Teaching and learning remain open and uncertain: what counts cannot be so easily specified or quantified. The humanist position receives support from this comprehensive review of goal-setting programs.

Latham and Yukl review twenty-seven studies of goal-setting programs in a variety of business and industrial organizations. They find that goal-setting programs have proved effective in improving performance in varied organizational settings at both managerial and nonmanagerial levels. Both programs with incentives for goal achievement and programs without them have been successful.

These conclusions favor merit and management by objectives proposals. But the authors also point to some conditions that limit the usefulness of goal-setting programs. Goal setting holds the least promise, they write, where jobs are complex and performance difficult to measure precisely. The two note that programs with managers, whose jobs are usually complex, have met with more problems and been less successful than programs with nonmanagerial workers. Apparently the complexity of the work of teachers and principals argues against educational goal-setting programs.

132 **McKenna, Charles D.** "Merit Pay? Yes!" *National Elementary Principal,* 52, 5 (February 1973), pp. 69-71. EJ 077 856.

The Ladue, Missouri, schools have maintained a teacher merit pay program to improve instruction and reward excellence for over twenty years. Evaluation determines teachers' placement on one of three salary schedules and their receipt of variable salary increments.

Ladue principals evaluate their teachers according to broad guidelines developed by a committee of teachers and administrators. The guidelines break down into three major areas: (1) personal qualities, which include basic character, mental and physical health, and interpersonal relationships; (2) preparation and growth, which include advanced study, travel, related work outside teaching, and participation in professional organizations; and (3) quality of teaching, which includes classroom management and effectiveness, instructional planning, evaluation, responsiveness to student needs, contribution to school climate, and cooperation with staff. The district emphasizes continuous evaluation; conferences, particularly pre- and post-observation conferences, form a major part of the process.

Whereas many merit plans have failed, McKenna, the district's superintendent, notes that both staff and community judge the Ladue program a success. He believes that teacher participation in its design and ongoing evaluation have contributed to this success. Also important have been an emphasis on teacher self-evaluation and teacher-principal communication and planning.

133 **Meyer, Herbert H.** "The Pay-for-Performance Dilemma." *Organizational Dynamics,* 3, 3 (Winter 1975), pp. 39-50. ED 168 136.

The work of Deci, based on laboratory experiments rather than studies of actual work situations, is controversial, but it is gaining acceptance among management theorists. Among those supporting Deci is Meyer, whose criticism of merit pay programs complements Deci's work from the perspective of industrial experience and research.

Meyer accepts Deci's charge that contingent payments reduce intrinsic motivation and points out additional drawbacks to merit programs. We must doubt supervisors' ability to make objective and valid distinctions among workers' performance. Such programs are demeaning and paternalistic in that they emphasize workers' dependence on their supervisors. They also create competition among workers, which generates mutual hostility, distorts perceptions of self and others, and lessens interaction and communication.

Most important, merit pay programs threaten the self-esteem of the great majority of workers. Almost all workers believe themselves to be above-average performers, and their expectations for substantial pay increases are bound to be frustrated by even well-administered merit programs. Workers will commonly react to the threat posed to their self-esteem by exerting pressure for lowered standards of performance, downgrading the value of the work, or disparaging their supervisors' capabilities.

134 **Murray, Stuart, and Kuffel, Tom.** "MBO and Performance Linked Compensation in the Public Sector." *Public Personnel Management*, 7, 3 (May-June 1978), pp. 171-76. EJ 183 269.

Management by objectives has proved itself in business, but public organizations have made only limited use of it. They have been even more reluctant to link management by objectives with merit pay. Murray and Kuffel argue that this reluctance is self-defeating (it may account for much of the inefficiency of public organizations) and call for a union of management by objectives and merit pay in public organizations.

They acknowledge that this union may have drawbacks. One theorist says that it may encourage employees to avoid difficult goals, overemphasize individual performance in place of teamwork, and present serious evaluation problems. But the authors counter that this union enhances motivation and further charge that the failure to reward high performance with pay or promotion will likely subvert employee effort.

They illustrate their argument with a survey of 126 administrators of a state social service agency using management by objectives. Most of the administrators, they report, saw no strong relationship between achieving their objectives and future pay (72 percent) or future promotion (70 percent). Only a minority (38 percent) continually met or exceeded their objectives. The authors suggest that these administrators were motivated by intrinsic rewards.

Administrators who do not see a link between their goal achievement and the reward system, they conclude, will fall short of their goals unless the work provides for intrinsic rewards.

135 **Parker, Barbara.** "Should Title I Money Be Used as Teacher Bonuses?" *American School Board Journal*, 166, 4 (April 1979), pp. 41-43. EJ 199 453.

The plan is simple: Redistribute the money now allocated to Title I schools to school districts with large Title I student populations. Use the money for cash bonuses to teachers and administrators who successfully raise the test scores of economically and educationally deprived students. Further reward school systems that raise the number of "deprived" pupils who graduate from high school or enter college.

The idea, Parker explains, is the brainchild of Professor Frank Brown of the State University of New York at Buffalo, "who thinks there is little to suggest that compensatory education, as it's now being implemented, is working—especially for minority children." Offering a little cold, hard cash, Brown believes, will help motivate educators to improve the education of Title I students.

Criticism of Brown's proposal have been leveled from all quarters. An associate director of the NEA believes that the plan would provide only short-term motivation. "What you have to do in order to teach effectively," she states, "is create a climate that produces sustained motivation within the individual." Other critics contend that teachers will simply teach the achievement test so they get their bonuses.

Federal administrators of Title I give the plan no chance of implementation. But who knows, Parker concludes: "For some educators, the sound of money might be the sweetest remedy of all."

136 **Sergiovanni, Thomas J.** "Financial Incentives and Teacher Accountability: Are We Paying for the Wrong Thing?" *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 11, 2 (Spring 1975), pp. 112-15. EJ 119 199.

Sergiovanni forcibly questions Bruno and Nottingham's incentive proposal. Their scheme, he argues, provides thoughtful means without thoughtful ends. Separated from educational purposes and beliefs, it remains an empty technical artifice lacking substance and meaning. It trades away accuracy, a matter of importance and value, for greater precision in measurement. What it measures precisely—student gain on achievement tests—holds in itself only dubious value. The plan fails to accommodate important learning goals that cannot be easily quantified and encourages teachers to slight them.

Their scheme should also lessen motivation in the long run. It may seek a true collegiality, but it provides only one tainted by paternalism. A form of neoscientific management, it employs external and impersonal means to control workers, and it acts ultimately to take away teachers' self-direction and reduce them to pawns.

Bruno and Nottingham reply in following pieces. The discussion of the three raises most of the major issues of the current debate between accountability and humanist theorists.

137 **Stoddard, Robert.** "This Board Hired a Superintendent Who Requested a Merit Pay Plan for Himself." *The American School Board Journal*, 166, 1 (January 1979), p. 41. EJ 194 042.

Stoddard briefly describes the Salmon, Idaho, schools' recent turn to merit pay. The district has started a merit plan for its new superintendent, on his request, and it hopes to extend the plan to its entire staff.

Under the plan, a pay committee established by the board evaluates the superintendent's performance for salary adjustments.

A committee of one principal, one teacher, one noncertified employee, two board members, two community members, and one student judges the superintendent's achievement of preset goals for such areas as leadership, organization, management, finance, and employee morale. The superintendent receives grades of A through F, and these translate into point values of five through one. The overall rating determines his salary. A rating of between 4.1 and 5 earns a $1,000 bonus; a rating of between 3.1 and 4 a $500 bonus; a rating of between 2.1 and 3 a $500 forfeiture; and a lower rating a $1,000 forfeiture. The committee's evaluation applies only to salary matters; the board still holds responsibility for the superintendent's final evaluation.

Stoddard, board chairman, admits the imperfection of the new system. He notes that the superintendent has shown concern that the grade system does not provide much specific information. But the plan is "a step in the right direction." Next year all administrators, Stoddard adds, will be placed on the merit plan, and the superintendent is currently trying to persuade the teachers to accept it voluntarily.

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138 **Wynn, Richard.** *Performance Based Compensation Structure for School Administrators. SIRS Bulletin No.* 2. Olympia, Washington: School Information and Research Service, 1976. 25 pages. ED 128 949.

Traditional merit pay programs, Wynn argues, are practically worthless: they are limited by primitive rating forms and lack reliability and validity. Such programs are often short-lived. New management-by-objectives merit programs hold much greater potential. Their success, however, demands careful and cooperative program design and implementation. A management-by-objectives program must mature and win confidence before it is used for merit pay.

Wynn provides a step-by-step model for the development of a management-by-objectives merit system. His critical discussion and abundant detail (especially on goal setting) make his bulletin the best work in support of administrative merit pay. His work is the only one sufficiently rich in detail and example to guide schools through all stages of program development.

Wynn's model bases administrative salaries on position base salary, salary increments, and performance incentives. Salary increments depend on achievement of routine objectives. Merit incentives depend on achievement of problem-solving, creative, and personal development objectives. The first of these focus on serious and recurring school problems. A principal might seek, for instance, to reduce school vandalism, student drug abuse, or teacher absenteeism.

Creative objectives call for the development of new programs and offer the greatest potential for action. Personal development objectives include graduate study, inservice activity, community participation, and research. Wynn discusses common problems posed by goal setting, gives guidelines for writing objectives, and includes sample goals and objectives.

10

Motivating Teachers

139 **Casey, William F. III.** "Would Bear Bryant Teach in the Public Schools? The Need for Teacher Incentives." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 60, 7 (March 1979), pp. 500-1. EJ 197 903.

"Bear" Bryant, Alabama's head football coach, is a "master of motivation," says Casey. He stimulates his players through a hard week of practice by using Saturday's game as a lure and motivator.

Teachers suffer through equivalent hardships during the week, says Casey, but unfortunately, on Saturday, "there ain't no game!" But teachers *can* still be motivated, Casey maintains, particularly if the public schools institute merit pay systems for teachers. In this entertaining but substantive article, Casey attacks the current "nonreward system" for teachers and outlines ground rules for a successful merit pay system.

The provision of Casey's merit pay system that differentiates it from most other such systems is this: each teacher interested in merit pay would have to apply for it himself or herself and would be "required to present his/her case in the same way that a lawyer presents a case." There would be no annual review of all teachers, Casey explains, which would only encourage the tendency to give a "little something" to everyone.

Merit pay would be awarded *"only* for outstanding effort and creativity in the *classroom,"* Casey continues. "Remember, you're seeking to improve *instruction,"* not form-filling or monitoring ability. Likewise, merit pay should not be given simply because a teacher gets along well with others, or because of financial need.

Merit pay awards should be made on a one-year basis, should be supplementary to the current step increase system, and should be large enough "to make a real difference," Casey continues. Competition should be as open as possible, with posted lists of applicants. Finally, the system *"should not* be based on student results on standardized tests. If you want standardized teaching" says Casey, "forget the whole idea."

140 **Cohen, Elizabeth G.** "Open Space Schools: The Opportunity to Become Ambitious." *Sociology of Education,* 46, 2 (Spring 1973), pp. 143-61. EJ 075 131.

"The fundamental peculiarity of the occupation of public elementary school teaching is the flatness of the reward structure." Commitment, skill, and performance are rarely rewarded in any manner, states Cohen, and there are few opportunities for professional advancement. Even informal peer rewards are few and weak in traditional schools because of the isolation of teachers in their classrooms.

A promising alternative to traditional school organization is the "open-space" school (not to be confused with the "open classroom," Cohen advises) in which several classes are taught simultaneously in one large room without visual or acoustical separation between "classroom" areas. According to a study conducted by Cohen and others, open-space elementary schools with team teaching provide teachers with "greater opportunities for interaction, influence, and informal rewards," and thus can serve as a valuable source of teacher motivation.

The researchers compared the job satisfaction and two types of ambition of women teachers in traditional and open-space elementary schools. "Professional ambition" was defined as a desire to increase classroom and teaching skills. "Vertical ambition" was defined as a desire for promotion in the hierarchy of the school.

Results showed that open-space school teachers as a group had a "sharply increased level of job satisfaction." In both open-space and self-contained classrooms, teachers who displayed vertical ambition had low levels of job satisfaction. Teachers in self-contained classrooms who were professionally ambitious also showed a low degree of job satisfaction.

But teachers in open-space schools who were professionally ambitious showed a high level of job satisfaction. Cohen speculates that teachers "might *become ambitious* when given the opportunity to try out new skills and to achieve new recognition for competence."

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141 **Dawson, Judith A.** *Teacher Participation in Educational Innovation: Some Insights into Its Nature.* Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1981. 41 pages. ED 200 593.

When school administrators consider implementing innovative change projects in their schools, the participation of teachers in the planning process is usually regarded as mandatory. But what kinds of participation are best? Which will motivate teachers most during the planning process and later, when the project is implemented? And how should participants be selected to enhance both teacher motivation and later acceptance of the project by the school's staff?

These and similar questions were the stimulus for the research described here. Dawson and her colleagues followed the development of educational change projects in three elementary and two secondary schools. Their findings provide valuable insights into the nature of teacher motivation and suggest some guidelines for administrative action.

One factor that appeared to enhance teacher motivation was increased interaction among teachers and among teachers and administrators. Such activities as sharing and discussing ideas at project meetings, observing teachers in other classrooms, and influencing the shape of the project fueled teachers' interests in the project.

Teacher motivation was also influenced by the "compatibility between project and other goals." Thus, motivation was reinforced when teachers participated in basic skills projects but was lessened by involvement in career education projects. Motivation was also affected by the "perceived future of the innovation," the cost of participation in terms of time and energy, and the commitment teachers had to the innovation. A teacher's long-term commitment to a project, the study found, was not related to whether the teacher was initially a volunteer or an "appointee."

Motivation was also influenced by the kind of roles the teachers filled in the planning sessions. For example, teachers were less satisfied with "student-like" roles, in which they passively received information or practiced techniques. They reacted favorably, however, to "board member" roles, in which they listened to presentations of information, discussed the data, and then made decisions.

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142 **ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.** *Merit Pay.* Research Action Brief Number 15. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1981. 5 pages. ED 199 828.

Merit pay is based on the premise that teachers should be paid what they are worth; thus, good teachers should receive extra pay. But are merit pay systems workable? More importantly, is money really a good way to motivate teachers? This excellent publication raises both of these questions and answers both with a "probably not."

Merit pay, despite its initial attractiveness, "faces a host of practical problems, most of them centering on the difficulties of actually developing and administering a pay system based on merit." These problems may be the reason why 90 percent of the nation's school districts have never tried merit pay, and why over 61 percent of those who have implemented such programs have discontinued them.

But merit pay for teachers appears to have more fundamental faults than its difficulty of administration. A number of studies indicate that money is not an important factor in teacher motivation. "Teachers are motivated primarily by the intrinsic rewards of the profession," according to one researcher, such as the "psychic rewards" garnered in the classroom.

Merit pay may also work against other important motivators, such as self-esteem. Most employees, another researcher has found, consider themselves above-average workers. By giving merit pay to a few, the majority came to feel "that management does not recognize their true worth."

These findings, this report concludes, "raise the possibility that merit pay in education is neither practical nor desirable." One possible alternative, however, might be "merit *praise* plans," in which good performance is rewarded with recognition and positive feedback. Although material rewards do not appear to be good motivators, another type of external reward—positive feedback—has been shown to be an effective motivating factor.

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143 **ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.** *Teacher Motivation.* Research Action Brief Number 13. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1980. 5 pages. ED 196 116.

What can school boards do to motivate teachers? This Research Action Brief helps answer this question by reviewing research and theories on motivation and then proposing several suggestions for board members and central office staff.

Numerous research studies, three of which are reviewed in this publication, show that "intrinsic" rewards are much more powerful for motivating teachers than are "extrinsic" rewards, such as merit pay. One researcher, for example, found that the existence of community support, positive social interactions, and agreement with district goals "contribute to teachers' desire to enter and remain in the system," as measured by absenteeism and turnover rates.

A second researcher found that "multiunit" schools with a decentralized authority structure composed of independent teaching teams were more effective in motivating teachers than were "nonmultiunit" schools with a traditional authority structure. A third researcher found that schools with high-achieving pupils more often used intrinsic rewards to motivate teachers, whereas low-achieving schools depended on extrinsic rewards.

These research results imply that board members and central office personnel can help motivate teachers by enhancing the system of intrinsic rewards already operating in the district. They can, for example, create a supportive atmosphere of trust and openness in the district, encourage teachers by recognizing quality work, promote community support for teachers through press releases and public relations campaigns, include teachers in the decision-making processes of the school and district, decentralize the authority structure, provide minigrants for innovative teacher projects, and provide more and better staff development.

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144 **Erlandson, David A., and Pastor, Margaret C.** "Teacher Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Alternatives—Directions for Principals." *NASSP Bulletin,* 65, 442 (February 1981), pp. 5-9. EJ 240 460.

Most of the changes in organizational structure necessary to stimulate teachers to excellence "can be wrought by the building principal." This is the central implication of a recent study of 150 high school teachers in ten high schools, according to Erlandson and Pastor.

The study measured "the presence and fulfillment of higher order need strengths" in the teachers studied. Higher order need strengths were defined as desires for involvement in decision-making, challenge on the job, expression of creativity, freedom and independence, and the opportunity to use a variety of skills. In contrast, lower order need strengths were defined as desires for high pay, fringe benefits, job security, friendly coworkers, and considerate supervision.

The researchers found that about two-thirds of the teachers "possessed a predominance of higher order need strengths over lower order need strengths," a ratio significantly greater than that for industrial workers. The teachers with the highest order need strengths, however, were the least satisfied, presumably because their needs were not being met in the school.

Erlandson and Pastor point out that the schools studied were better at fulfilling lower order needs than higher order needs. Thus, a principal looking for a satisfied staff *could* hire only teachers who have a dominance of lower order need strengths. If the principal is interested in having a dynamic and adaptable instructional program, however, he or she will attempt to alter the school to accommodate teachers with a dominance of higher order need strengths.

Since the principal "has considerable power to shape the communication, influence, and decision-making patterns of the school and to allocate significant instructional areas" to teachers, the authors conclude, he or she can help fulfill the most pressing needs of teachers with higher order needs—needs for freedom and independence in their work.

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145 **Gregorc, Anthony F., and Hendrix, David F.** "Are Turned-off Teachers Turning Off Your Schools?" *School Management,* 17, 3 (March 1973), pp. 8, 33. EJ 072 496.

To respond to the problem of turned-off teachers, state Gregorc and Hendrix, "we must find out what teachers need to receive from their jobs in order to perform with enthusiasm and effectiveness." Clues to teachers' needs can be found in the work of Frederick Herzberg, whose theories Gregorc and Hendrix review.

Every job, according to Herzberg, must make provision for both "hygienic" and "motivational" factors. Hygienic factors include such conditions as adequate salary, competent supervision, job security, opportunity for personal growth, and good interpersonal relationships on the job.

Hygienic factors alone, however, are not enough. "Providing the hygienic factors brings the worker to a point of readiness, but it is the motivational factors that stimulate these employees to happiness and productivity." Motivational factors include recognition from others, satisfaction from viewing the results of successful work, responsibility for one's work, and opportunities for change of position and increased responsibility.

The public schools, Gregorc and Hendrix contend, have failed to provide the motivational factors needed by teachers. Regulation of teachers is tight, recognition is scant, promotion is not possible without moving out of the classroom, and merit pay is not widely used. To motivate teachers properly, administrators should find out which motivational factors they can offer teachers and then develop a motivational system designed to meet teachers' needs.

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146 **Gudridge, Beatrice M.** "Great Teachers Deserve Great Rewards." *American School Board Journal,* 167, 7 (July 1980), pp. 30-31. EJ 227 818.

Some superintendents believe that no reward is too good for a "great" teacher. So why not "name a school after her," "buy him a car," or "send her on an all-expenses-paid trip to Hawaii"? Though unrealistic, Gudridge admits, these suggestions are more appropriate rewards for exemplary teachers than what school districts usually give: nothing.

Even in districts where money is extremely tight, good teaching can and should be rewarded. Great teachers, after all, are not motivated by money but by needs for self-satisfaction and occasional praise from superiors or colleagues.

Administrators can recognize good teachers by having "teacher of the week" and "teacher of the year" awards. "Having achievement recognized will turn on the teacher's 'hot button' more than money," Gudridge states.

When monetary rewards are available, they can be given in sums of $500 or $600, or fewer teachers can be chosen and more substantial rewards—perhaps even $4,000 to $5,000—can be given.

Encouragement from superiors is also a powerful motivator for teachers. Gudridge relates the case of three kindergarten teachers who wanted to start their students in academic subjects, but no materials were available. When the principal encouraged the teachers to write their own materials, they thought the principal "was out of her mind." Buoyed by the principal's trust and high expectations, however, the teachers developed a reading readiness project that eventually came to be used in forty-five states. Encouragement was the key.

Other possible rewards for outstanding teachers are "invitations to testify on education matters at school board meetings," "classroom visits by school board members and the superintendent," and leaves of absence to develop and write about successful teaching strategies.

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147 **Kaiser, Jeffrey S.** "Motivation Deprivation: No Reason to Stay." *Clearing House,* 55, 1 (September 1981), pp. 35-38. EJ 250 773.

Job factors that prevent teacher dissatisfaction are not the same as those that satisfy and motivate teachers. "This is the single most misunderstood concept in teacher burnout," says Kaiser.

Factors that simply prevent dissatisfaction are what Frederick Herzberg termed "hygiene" factors and include "salary, fringe benefits, a good working environment, and good human relations." Hygiene factors "prevent dissatisfaction but never satisfy and never motivate." They are like "the garbage pick-up system in a municipality," Kaiser offers, "which can keep people from becoming sick but can never make people healthy."

True motivation is provided by the opportunity to fulfill higher needs, such as those for advancement, achievement, recognition, and "responsibility for an enriched, interesting job." Unfortunately, though, says Kaiser, these motivating factors are largely unavailable to practicing teachers. Teachers have little chance for advancement in the American system; "a sense of achievement tends to be left to the imagination of the teacher"; and recognition is often either too broad—extending to everyone—or too narrow—limited to one "teacher of the year."

Kaiser suggests that administrators and school boards pay more attention to these higher motivators and find ways to make them more available to teachers. If, instead, boards attempt to enhance hygiene factors only, "unmotivated hygiene-seekers" will fill the ranks of the nation's schools. If the hygiene factors then begin to erode with the national economy," there will be no reason to stay."

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148 **Kaiser, Jeffrey S., and Polczynski, James J.** "A Practical Theory of Motivation for Principals." *NASSP Bulletin,* 63, 425 (March 1979), pp. 19-23. EJ 197 819.

If your past attempts to motivate teachers have "back-fired," say these authors, you should try the "expectancy" theory of motivation, also known as "goal-path analysis." Using the expectancy model, principals can provide "appropriate rewards to appropriate teachers in appropriate situations."

The two tenets of expectancy theory are that a person must receive a desired reward for performance and that "there must be a clear performance path leading to the reward." There is much more to the theory than this, however, as the authors explain.

Administrators should first consider "valence," which describes "a person's preference among possible outcomes." Next, the "instrumentality" of the goal path should be analyzed: does the individual being motivated have reason to believe that a certain performance will result in the reward promised?

Valence and instrumentality interact in the model and lead to "performance valence," which indicates how highly the individual will value the reward. If the individual also believes he or she can attain the requested performance level (the phase termed "expectancy"), then he or she will exert a good deal of energy or "force" to reach the goal.

But as most of us are aware, the authors continue, "effort and hard work alone (although quite important) do not automatically lead to high performance." Consideration must also be given to both the individual's ability to perform and to his or her "role perception," which deals with the congruency between what "the individual believes he should engage in at the work place" and what is being asked of him.

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149 **McGrady, Seamus.** "Managing Minigrants." *Nation's Schools,* 93, 2 (February 1974), pp. 39-42, 88. EJ 091 266.

Minigrants come in sizes ranging from tens to thousands of dollars and can be given for an infinite range of teacher projects. Despite their variety, however, says McGrady, minigrants have one thing in common: they "are a highly effective device to get teachers involved in educational programs by rewarding those with ideas and initiative. They promote excellence." In this article, McGrady explains the use of these simple motivational tools and describes guidelines for their proper management.

Minigrant systems have two advantages over regular project funding systems, says McGrady. First, the time between the conception of a project and its funding is shortened dramatically. Second, the simplicity of the application process encourages more teachers to submit proposals; thus all ideas get "on the table and the best get funded."

In most districts that use minigrants, the projects to be funded are chosen by a committee of teachers and administrators. In some districts, parents, students, and classified staff are also included on the selection committee.

Application forms, says McGrady, "should be brief, clear and complete," but not exhaustive or complicated. And before applications are distributed, teachers should fully understand "what minigrants are all about—their approximate dollar value, their purpose, and the criteria by which they'll be evaluated."

In judging a minigrant application, committee members might consider a project's feasibility, its innovativeness, the transferability of the project's benefits to students outside the project, the effect of the project on students, and the validity of the project's proposed evaluation measures. McGrady discusses several other aspects of minigrant programs and describes numerous successful minigrant programs.

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150 **Miller, Harry G., and Swick, Kevin J.** "Community Incentives for Teacher Excellence." *Education,* 96, 3 (Spring 1976), pp. 235-37. EJ 149 308.

"For most school systems, incentives and reward systems have not been clearly identified and utilized to influence and motivate better teaching." To help administrators correct this deficiency, Miller and Swick here outline several "incentive schemes" designed to motivate teachers and, thus, improve classroom instruction.

One important and easy-to-use incentive is simple recognition for a job well done. Within the school, administrators can recognize and applaud good teaching through notices in school bulletins or announcements at faculty meetings. Or administrators can arrange classroom visitations by fellow teachers, other administrators, school board members, and parents. Good teachers can be asked to give presentations at district, regional, and state workshops and can be encouraged to publish articles in professional journals.

On the community level, teachers can be recognized through "teacher of the week" awards or "teacher appreciation nights." Administrators can also use the local media to "recognize special achievements of teachers and to focus on special professional endeavors of teachers."

When funds are available, several other reward strategies become feasible. Administrators can grant monetary awards or merit pay, buy plaques to award outstanding teaching, pay for teachers' memberships in professional organizations, allocate funds for special projects, or provide leaves of absence and paid expenses for professional conferences. Other possible rewards are appointment to a principal's advisory council, promotion to an administrative position, and "appointment as a master teacher responsible for curriculum development and demonstration of instructional strategies."

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151 **Safferstone, Mark J.** "Performance Contracting: Implications of the Behavioral Paradigm for Educational Administration." *Peabody Journal of Education,* 54, 2 (January 1977), pp. 88-93. EJ 161 254.

Because school administrators must accomplish the school's objectives through others, they regularly face the problem of developing and maintaining a satisfactory level of staff motivation. Performance contracting combined with behavior motivation strategies, Safferstone contends, can help administrators maintain high levels of teacher performance and motivation.

Much of our current understanding of motivation in an organizational setting stems from the work of Abraham Maslow and Frederick Herzberg. Maslow identified a hierarchy of human needs and conceptualized management's role "as integrating personal needs and organizational goals." Because the lower needs are largely satisfied in this society, managers must attempt to motivate people with higher types of "pay," such as belongingness, respect, appreciation, and opportunities for self-actualization.

In the public schools today, says Safferstone, there is a large discrepancy between administrators' actual motivational behavior —as exemplified "by typical teacher evaluation forms and techniques"—and the organizational motivation theories of Maslow, Herzberg, and others. One way out of this dilemma, states Safferstone, is to use a behavioral motivation strategy known as performance contracting.

Essentially, a performance contract is "an agreement in which rewards are promised in return for desired behavior." In a school setting, administrators and teachers would cooperatively define objectives to be achieved, methods to assess achievement of goals, and rewards for success.

Performance contracting has been used successfully with students at all educational levels, with prisoners and drug abusers, and in business and educational administration. Safferstone briefly reviews these applications and concludes that with performance contracting, school administrators can "maintain high performance expectations, encourage goal directed teacher behavior, foster independent decision making, and recognize and reward teachers meeting or exceeding established performance criteria."

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152 **Spuck, Dennis W.** "Reward Structures in the Public High School." *Educational Administration Quarterly,* 10, 1 (Winter 1974), pp. 18-34. EJ 092 744.

The proper functioning of an organization depends on the cooperative interaction of its members. This cooperation, however, is not given freely, says Spuck, "but is exchanged for desired rewards made available through participation in the organization."

To determine which types of rewards are related to cooperative organizational behaviors, Spuck conducted a study of twenty-eight Southern California high schools. The participating teachers completed a questionnaire developed by Spuck that measured the relationship between eight "reward structure categories" and three "cooperative behaviors" related to a teacher's joining and staying in the school system: ease of recruitment, absenteeism rate, and turnover rate.

The eight reward categories measured by Spuck's instrument were "material inducements"—such as salary and fringe benefits, perceived recognition of the school by the community, physical conditions of the school, pride of workmanship in teaching, extent of social interaction with peers, agreement with district goals and policy, ability to influence school policy—and "environmental working conditions," which reflected teachers' perceptions of how classes were assigned, freedom to teach as desired, and so forth.

Spuck found that schools that experience little difficulty in recruiting new teachers are those that have "high levels of community support, pride of workmanship, and social interaction with peers as well as desirable physical and environmental working conditions." The level of material inducements, surprisingly, was not related to ease of recruitment.

Absenteeism was found to be related to two of the reward categories. Schools with high levels of community support and teachers who tended to agree with district goals and policies had low levels of absenteeism. No single reward category correlated significantly with teacher turnover rate, although combinations of categories did.

Spuck outlines several reward system "taxonomies" and discusses the implications of his study in terms of "intrinsic," "extrinsic," and "environmental" motivators of teaching. He concludes that the key to motivating employees is "understanding desired rewards and providing for these needs to be met in pursuit of organizational goals."

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153 **Thompson, Sydney.** *Motivation of Teachers.* School Management Digest Series 1, No. 18. Burlingame, California: Association of California School Administrators, 1979. Prepared by ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon. 50 pages. ED 178 998.

"The answer to teacher motivation lies in intrinsic motivation," states Thompson, not in extrinsic motivation involving money and control. This conclusion is based on the results of research in the fields of management and organizational psychology conducted by such figures as Maslow, McGregor, Herzberg, and Deci. In this excellent publication, Thompson carefully explains the research and philosophies of these and other authors as they relate to teacher motivation. Together, their ideas make up what is often referred to as the "human resources" view of motivation, which argues that "worker fulfillment and productivity are to be reached together through an integration of the needs of workers and organizations."

Because these theories were developed in industry and business, however, educators should be cautious in applying them to teachers, Thompson warns. Teaching differs from other established professions in that it is relatively "careerless" and "barren of major extrinsic incentives, such as increases in money, prestige, and power." Most of the work rewards of teachers are "intrinsic" or "psychic" in nature, the most powerful of which is "a sense of having influenced students."

Thompson's discussions of the human resources view of worker motivation and the work environment of teachers prepare the reader for the third section of this digest, titled "Strategies for Enhancing the Motivation of Teachers." Drawing on both the educational literature and interviews with working educators, Thompson presents numerous practical and useful suggestions that administrators can utilize to motivate teachers. Included are discussions of praising and encouraging, honoring, setting goals, providing feedback, promoting collaborative relations, increasing teachers' control over their work, minigrants, and staff development.

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154 **Williams, Robert T.** "Application of Research: Teacher Motivation and Satisfaction." *NASSP Bulletin,* 62, 422 (December 1978), pp. 89-94. EJ 192 376.

According to Abraham Maslow, individuals are motivated by five drives. The "physiological" and "security" drives motivate individuals to seek food, clothing, shelter, and continued security in having these needs met. The "social," "esteem," and "self-actualization" drives motivate people to relate positively to others, achieve personal success, and find satisfaction in themselves.

Recent research, states Williams, shows that teachers are "generally well satisfied with the two lower order needs." Thus, administrators have little to gain by attempting to motivate teachers at these levels. Instead, administrators should concentrate on motivating teachers at the esteem and self-actualization levels.

It is important to recognize, though, Williams emphasizes, that different teachers are motivated by different drives. Although most teachers are satisfied on the lower levels, some are still striving for satisfaction of their security needs. Others, however, are knocking on the door of self-actualization.

Thus, some teachers may perceive such activities as "parent-teacher conferences, working with student teachers, membership on district-wide committees, bus duty, and curriculum development" as "work overload." Others, though, may regard the same activities as opportunities for further self-development. The astute administrator, Williams concludes, attempts to motivate individual teachers on the most appropriate levels, so that each can proceed from one level of Maslow's hierarchy to the next.

11

The Principal as Change Agent

155 **Atkins, Victor, and Kauffman, Neil.** "Three Suburban Principals Talk about Change." *National Elementary Principal,* 56, 4 (March-April 1977), pp. 56-65. EJ 157 045.

Atkins and Kauffman arranged this interview with three principals from the suburbs of Boston in response to their concern "that a significant voice is missing from the sometimes noisy debate about education"—that of "thoughtful practitioners reflecting on their practice." In this article, the three principals—Mary, Barbara, and Richard—discuss how they were selected for their positions, how they judged what had to be changed in their schools, and how they went about implementing those changes.

Mary entered a school that was "very drab, very quiet, very structured." Mary had had "no administration courses whatsoever" and held no theory of change—traits she considered an advantage. Instinctively, she felt the need to change the school's environment.

Mary identified several traits of the principal as effective change agent. The principal should be a supplier of information, be able to "look at the structure of the school and isolate where the power is," and then be able to work with or around that structure. Finally, the principal should be an important role model, for "people don't do what you say, they do what you do."

Richard also entered a school that was in rough shape, with both the parents and staff badly divided. He refused to take sides and promoted a philosophy of "diversity as a strength." He formed and worked with numerous teacher committees to deal with specific problems, "which helped harness a lot of randomly dispersed energy onto a specific goal."

Barbara entered a better situation, but the school still had its problems. Her main change strategies were to increase the staff's access to information and to alter the power structure of the school. Essentially, "it came down to wrenching the power away from the aides" and redistributing it to teachers and team leaders.

156 **Drake, Daniel D., and Schuttenberg, Ernest M.** "Toward Educational Excellence in an Urban Junior High School." *NASSP Bulletin,* 60, 401 (September 1976), pp. 89-94. EJ 153 061.

What specific techniques can be used by principals to foster change and innovation at the building level? In this article, Drake and Schuttenberg report in some detail the efforts of an urban junior high school principal "to lead his school toward educational excellence through the use of a collaborative strategy" of change.

The principal utilized several resources from both inside and outside the school to effect change. He participated in a "year-long inservice Leadership Training Program," which enabled him to "forge closer ties with the central office and utilize its resources." He also had the assistance of a consultant from a local university who helped assess the organizational health of the school.

The principal took pains to open communication channels and involve teachers, students, and parents in the change process. Information was exchanged with the faculty by consulting with both their locally elected representatives and with informally organized faculty groups. Students and parents participated as members of various school committees.

A "Needs Assessment Task Force," consisting of teachers, parents, and students, was appointed by the principal to examine "the district and school educational philosophies" and then formulate and prioritize educational goals.

The "Organization Perception Questionnaire" was administered to nearly all the school's staff members. The data were analyzed first by computer, then by a faculty committee that made recommendations for needed improvements. Nearly three-fourths of the twenty recommendations were implemented that year, the authors report, to the great satisfaction of the committee members.

Finally, six volunteer staff members participated in a workshop on planning educational change at the local university. The authors report that the organizational improvement program has been highly beneficial and has created a participatory atmosphere in the school.

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157 **Erlandson, David A.** "An Organizing Strategy for Managing Change in the School." *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 435 (April 1980), pp. 1-8. EJ 219 595.

Research dealing with change in education is usually "fairly tenuous in its conclusions" or is so lengthy or technical that practitioners rarely utilize it. The popular educational literature, on the other hand, usually provides only "quick and easy recipes for effecting change" that are similarly limited in their usefulness.

What are needed, then, are simple methods or instruments that administrators can use without special knowledge or training to plot strategies for successfully implementing change in their schools. Erlandson here presents one such method, which is centered around the "Change Potential Analysis Chart."

In the leftmost column of the chart, the administrator lists the key individuals or groups who "will be important in the anticipated change process." In the next two columns, "attitudes toward the proposed change" and "rewards sought through system" are noted for each individual or group. Rewards might include such items as salary, professional or personal achievement, peer approval, and student achievement.

"It is important for the reliability of the whole analytical process," Erlandson stresses, that the rewards column "be carefully and honestly completed, since much of the success of a difficult change project will depend upon answers generated from this column." The data in the rewards column are used to generate the next column, titled "How Can These Rewards Be Structured into Proposed Change?" Erlandson provides two examples of completed charts and emphasizes that the charts are not master plans, but rather worksheets to help administrators conceptualize a specific change process.

Each organization tends to process change in a habitual way, which Erlandson refers to as its "modal process of change." "The graveyard of educational innovations is filled with the remains of proposed changes that were introduced in a manner that ran counter to the modal process." Thus, administrators should utilize the school's modal process whenever possible. This process can often be characterized by analyzing past change projects with the aid of change analysis charts.

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158 **Ganz, Harold J., and Hoy, Wayne K.** "Patterns of Succession of Elementary Principals and Organizational Change." *Planning and Changing,* 8, 2-3 (Summer-Fall 1977), pp. 185-190. EJ 169 808.

What kinds of elementary principals make the most effective change agents? To help answer this question, Ganz and Hoy studied sixty New Jersey principals to determine the pattern of succession of the principals "as related to administrative behaviors, career orientations and change perspectives."

The researchers administered questionnaires to both the principal and the faculty of each school at regularly scheduled faculty meetings. Thirty of the principals were "insiders" (persons promoted from within the district) and thirty were "outsiders" (those hired from outside the district).

A key finding of the study was that "change is more likely to occur from administrators who are outsiders rather than insiders." This is true for superintendents and secondary principals as well as for elementary principals. The authors speculate that "perhaps principals who are insiders spend too much time maintaining and protecting their own position rather than dealing with educational issues that may produce change."

The study also found that elementary principals who are outsiders tend to regard a change of jobs as necessary for advancement in their profession. Outsiders also were more committed to their careers and believed they had greater ability than insiders in convincing superiors of the need for change.

The authors note that there may be times when insiders are more desirable; if implementing change is the objective, however, outsiders will probably be more successful.

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159 **Georgiades, William.** "Curriculum Change: What Are the Ingredients?" *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 434 (March 1980), pp. 70-75. EJ 217 711.

"Unless we opt for meaningful and purposeful change during the remaining decades of this century," Georgiades states, "school systems as we know them today are likely to lose their impact in the education of America's youth." Principals, of course, have a critical role in this change process, but unfortunately most school administrators lack the skills necessary to effectively bring about change, particularly in the curriculum area.

Recent research, though, has identified characteristics of successful change projects as well as processes and models for implementing and analyzing change projects. Georgiades here outlines this useful information and speculates on the future of school organization in a constantly changing society.

The NASSP's Model Schools program and other research has identified a "step-by-step process for changing curriculum." For change to take place, "an awareness must be developed that change is needed." Next, teachers and administrators must "look carefully at the alternatives" available for reorganizing the curriculum, assess each alternative, and then modify one for use in the school. A pilot program should be run for one or two years, during which the effectiveness of the curriculum is closely monitored with reliable instruments.

Finally, if the pilot program is successful, the change should be implemented schoolwide. Georgiades recommends caution during this period of institutionalization, because schools may "lock themselves into curriculum change which, while effective today, will be ineffective tomorrow."

Both the complexity of a change project and resistance to it can be either high or low. Georgiades uses these facts to construct what he calls a "change quadrant" that can help educators analyze and implement change. In "Quadrant 3," for example, resistance to the project is high but the project is not complex. The recommended approach to win acceptance for the program is to use nondirective counseling and experiential techniques such as role-playing and job rotation.

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160 **Howes, Kimball L.** "Pathways and Pitfalls in Introducing Change." *NASSP Bulletin,* 60, 399 (April 1976), pp. 43-51. EJ 149 647.

"All organizations are like living physical organisms and, as such, are either growing or dying," states Howes. "Change is inevitable by the very nature of life." The success or failure of change depends largely on the political climate both within the school and exterior to it. Finally, change can be motivated by nearly any part of an organization.

In this diverse article Howes illustrates these concepts and others with a number of case studies of organizational change processes. He also reviews six recent publications that give insights, theory, and techniques for bringing about change.

Howes emphasizes the importance of questioning the motives of both the superintendent and the principal when they propose changes. Are they motivated by competition, under pressure from superiors, or obsessed with gimmickry? Are they really interested in improving the learning environment? What is their past record like?

Principals generally react to change in one of four ways. Many principals are truly committed to improving education and will support any change process that would help improve the learning environment. Other principals, primarily "conscientious veterans," are "primarily interested in running a quiet and tidy ship." They will attempt to implement change, however, if ordered from above.

The third group is innovative because "they view this approach as an opportunity to create a reputation as an aggressive change agent." Finally, a minority is so comfortable in their bureaucratic niche that they will resist change "to the bitter end."

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161 **Johnson, Bruce, and Sloan, Charles A.** *A Study of Elementary School Principals' Self-Perceptions of Change Agent Behavior. Procedures for Adopting Educational Innovations/CBAM Colleague Report.* Austin, Texas: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Texas University, 1977. 30 pages. ED 191 126.

The research literature on the role of the elementary principal is paradoxical. On the one hand, principals are expected to maintain the status quo as prescribed by society's norms, while on the other hand, they are expected to act as dynamic leaders of change. To determine just how principals view their role in bringing about change, Johnson and Sloan conducted this study of ninety-five elementary school principals from fourteen northern Illinois school districts.

Three means of data collection were used. The principals were rated by a committee of central office administrators regarding their involvement in change. The principals were also asked to rate their own behavior. Finally, the principals were asked to supply demographic information.

According to the data, experienced elementary school principals were more likely than beginning principals to be classified by central office administrators as comprehensive change agents. Another interesting finding was that principals who employed paid teacher aides were more often seen as comprehensive change agents. The authors speculate that with the present union situation "it may be essential to provide human resources in the form of teacher aides as a means to bring about significant educational change."

Regardless of how their superiors rated them as change agents, the principals studied "were cognitively aware of the administrative behaviors necessary to implement change." Principals rated as comprehensive change agents, however, did report a greater use of three behaviors: "developing the innovation as a group endeavor," "rewarding the faculty through visible recognition," and "systematically evaluating the innovation." This latter finding is particularly significant, state the authors, because evaluation is frequently overlooked in the change process.

162 **Klausmeier, Herbert J.** "Strengthening Successful Innovative Practices." *NASSP Bulletin*, 64, 435 (April 1980), pp. 20-31. EJ 219 597.

Many promising practices that were implemented and flourished only a few years ago have now disappeared. "Every time this occurs," says Klausmeier, "the traditional pattern of separate subject, undifferentiated group instruction, tracking of students, and depersonalization of schooling become strengthened."

Perhaps what is needed to stabilize successful innovations and promote continuous educational improvement is an overall conceptual framework to which individual change efforts could be related. Klausmeier here presents one such framework, which was developed by the Wisconsin Program for the Renewal and Improvement of Secondary Education. This "conceptual design of secondary education" consists of ten comprehensive objectives, "each dealing with a major aspect of secondary education."

Comprehensive Objective 3—called the primary objective of the whole system—arranges for each student "a total educational program of course work and other activities . . . that satisfies his or her developmental needs and characteristics and also meets district and state requirements." This comprehensive objective, and the other nine, are followed by several more specific "enabling objectives." For objective 3, they include the planning of a total educational program by each student and his or her adviser, the provision of appropriate instruction, the monitoring of performance, and the setting of goals for the next semester or year.

Other objectives deal with administrative arrangements, curricular arrangements, organization for instruction, student decision-making, home-school-community relations, internal and external support arrangements, and work and community learning activities. Short descriptions of successful innovative practices follow each objective.

163 **Krajewski, Robert J., and Zintgraff, Paul E.** "Identifying Innovational Constraints: A Model for School Principals." *Educational Technology*, 17, 12 (December 1977), pp. 26-9. EJ 173 961.

Planning for educational change *seems* simple enough: first, identify the need for change; next, establish objectives and a plan of action to reach those objectives; and finally, establish an evaluation procedure to monitor the change process. Unfortunately, unforeseen problems usually come up that frustrate the change process. Krajewski and Zintgraff here outline a conceptual model designed to help principals identify "innovational constraints" and thus plan comprehensively for successful change.

Constraints can be of several different types: psychological, physical, temporal, sociocultural, legal, and fiscal. The constraints can be applied by the administrative hierarchy, students, teachers, or parents. In the authors' model, a matrix is formed with types of constraints as columns and those applying the constraints as rows. Using a rating scale of high, medium, and low, the principal indicates "the correlation between the constraint and the personnel group involved."

The combinations given high ratings will likely be areas of significant constraint on the change process. The principal, having identified these areas, should then analyze them in detail. To help in this process, the authors have included two examples and a list of possible causes for the constraints given.

Once the process is complete, the principal will have both "a fairly sophisticated, logically developed list of significant constraints" and a good deal of "insight into how to deal with these constraints." The principal can then "establish objectives and specify a feasible plan of action for dealing with the constraints."

164 **Licata, Joseph W.** "In the School's Social System Is the Principal an Effective Change Agent?" *NASSP Bulletin*, 59, 395 (December 1975), pp. 75-81. EJ 135 572.

In acting as a change agent, the principal has the advantage of being familiar with "the language, norms, needs, and aspirations of his school's social system." But the principal's role also has several drawbacks, some of which are described here by Licata.

First of all, the principal is an intimate part of the school system and thus may not be able to see the system "as a whole." In addition, the time and energy needed to act as a change agent may be severely restricted by "the day-to-day crises connected with running a building." The principal usually will not have the expertise necessary to implement change in many specialized areas, and may not have the power to do so even if he or she does have the expertise. Finally, the principal will likely have difficulty trying to simultaneously act as a helpful change agent and as a dispenser of rewards and punishments to teachers.

Despite these drawbacks, says Licata, there are ways for the principal to help "develop a social-emotional climate which facilitates innovation." The principal's verbal behavior is a key factor, because it communicates whether the principal is more interested in supporting himself or in supporting others.

When the principal is "other-supportive," he or she is helping to provide a climate for teacher, student, and parent participation. And since subordinates tend to model the behavior of their leader, the verbal behavior of the principal can influence the climate of change at all levels in the school building.

165 **Licata, Joseph W.; Ellis, Elmer C.; and Wilson, Charles M.** "Initiating Structure for Educational Change." *NASSP Bulletin*, 61, 408 (April 1977), pp. 25-33. EJ 162 115.

"Initiating structure," state the authors, "refers to a leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of his staff, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure." By initiating a structure designed to enhance innovation, the principal can become a successful change agent in his or her school. In this article, the authors discuss one such "initiating structure": the organization and scheduling of committee meetings concerned with solving a school problem.

Too often, school administrators ask faculty members to hold committee meetings after school. But, state the authors, "afterschool meetings just don't make sense"; teachers who are fatigued and suffer from "stimulus overload" after school are in no condition to effectively participate in creative decision-making.

The answer, of course, is to find ways to schedule released time for committee members during the regular school day. The authors suggest that administrators brainstorm to come up with alternative ways to schedule released time during school hours. A list of twenty-seven alternative scheduling ideas is presented to help in this process.

Once the alternatives are generated, the administrator should list them along with both their intended consequences and their "anticipated negative consequences for the school organization." In this form, the alternatives can be weighed against one another and ranked to develop a "contingency pool" of alternative plans.

Once the committee is organized, the principal should nurture the commitment of its members to help assure that it will be productive and innovative. The committee members should be consulted about the organization of the committee and its time and place of meeting. When teachers can participate in developing and organizing the committee, state the authors, they will be much more committed to its goals.

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166 **Littrell, J. Harvey.** "A Research-Based Technique for Selecting Chairpersons." *NASSP Bulletin,* 62, 417 (April 1978), pp. 24-8. EJ 175 598.

Teachers will often resist any changes made in the curriculum or instructional program. Thus, it is imperative that the chairpersons of curriculum committees "be individuals who can help others to accept changes," states Littrell. Usually, chairpersons are selected on the questionable bases of "seniority, youth, light loads, turn-taking, or status." A much better method of selecting chairpersons, says Littrell, is to use a technique based on "the research which has identified the characteristics of good change leaders."

This research indicates that good change leaders are viewed by teachers as "not too different" from themselves and "only slightly better" in instructional ability and socioeconomic status. Preferably, these leaders are "not innovators" but instead are "early adopters of innovation." They have access to information outside the local area—through attending conferences and reading journals—and are perceived by their peers to have good judgment.

Based on these findings, Littrell constructed a questionnaire—presented here—that is designed to help principals identify teachers' preferred committee chairpersons. The anonymous questionnaires ask teachers to identify and characterize the persons they would turn to first for instructional advice.

Littrell outlines the procedures the principal should use in tabulating and interpreting the results of the questionnaire. The end product is a list of individuals who "are perceived by others as best satisfying the criteria for good change leaders."

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167 **McIntyre, D. John.** "Attitude Change Models—Meaning for Principals." *NASSP Bulletin,* 63, 425 (March 1979), pp. 45-48. EJ 197 824.

"Promoting change is a more complex process than simply systematically planning the change of a curriculum, school philosophy, or staff utilization," states McIntyre. Effective change requires, above all, a change in the attitudes of those affected by the change. Thus the success of a principal as change agent depends, in large part, on his or her understanding of how and why people's attitudes change. McIntyre here describes several models of attitude change to help principals toward an understanding of this critical aspect of organizational change.

The "congruity model" provides "a generalized attitude scale which permits one to predict the direction of the individual's attitude change." For example, if a principal is highly rated (a "+3") in the eyes of teachers, and this principal wants to introduce a textbook perceived as a "−1," there will most likely be a change in attitude toward the textbook because of the principal's prestige.

In the "reinforcement theory" of change, the acceptance of change is dependent on the incentives offered to make the change. Incentives may be "arguments or reasons supporting the proposed change" or "rewards and punishments" that would follow acceptance of the change.

The "dissonance model" maintains that "coercion can be a positive force in changing an individual's attitude." Teachers induced to change their attitude by coercion will be forced to rationalize their action by acknowledging, at least publicly, that their attitude has indeed changed. Finally, McIntyre reviews Maslow's "Hierarchy of Human Needs" model, which assumes that "a self-actualized person is more conducive to accepting change."

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168 **Miskel, Cecil G.** "Principals' Perceived Effectiveness, Innovation Effort, and the School Situation." *Educational Administrative Quarterly,* 13, 1 (Winter 1977), pp. 31-46. EJ 158 804.

"Principal effectiveness is a multidimensional concept," states Miskel, and includes three components: "innovation effort, perceptual evaluation by subordinates, and perceptual evaluation by superordinates." Each of these three components might influence the other two. In addition, two "situational factors"—the interpersonal climate in the school and the technology level of the school district—may influence each of the three components of principal effectiveness.

To determine which variables had an influence on the components of effectiveness, Miskel conducted a study in thirty-nine of the largest school districts in a midwestern state. From five to twelve principals in each district were surveyed, along with eight teachers serving under each principal, and the immediate supervisor of each principal.

Innovation effort was defined and measured as the "number of new programs initiated or maintained by the principal to improve the organizational functioning of the school building." Technology level ("the extent to which the school district is using modern administrative practices") and the interpersonal climate of the school were measured using a "Situational Description Questionnaire."

The results of the study showed a complex pattern of influences on the components of principal effectiveness. Each of the three components of effectiveness was found to influence the other two. In addition, the subordinates' evaluations of the principal were affected by the interpersonal climate of the building, and the innovation effort of the principal was affected by the technological level of the district.

Miskel concludes that the difficulty in starting new programs may be explained in part by the complex system of variables that affects the principal's innovation efforts, which can "combine to make the forces surrounding innovation and the expected role of the principal very hard for the administrator to understand and control."

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169 **Trump, J. Lloyd, and Georgiades, William.** *How to Change Your School.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1978. 75 pages. ED 162 425.

Although teachers, parents, and students participate in the change process, state Trump and Georgiades, "the fact remains that the person in charge sets the tone and the methodology of change." Thus, it is essential that the principal understand the nature and process of change. To help principals gain this kind of understanding, the authors here "raise questions and suggest possible answers" about the change process at the school site. The advice presented is based on the authors' experiences in the NASSP's Model Schools Project.

The first step is to identify what needs to be changed. To facilitate this process, the authors list numerous examples of possible changes that a principal might be considering. After establishing a tentative list of needed changes, the principal should prioritize the list and check with others on the rankings.

The steps taken by a principal to elicit change are essentially the same steps taken by a good teacher to stimulate learning. The goals of the change should be identified and understood. Positive motivation should be used to stimulate people to change, and the individuals involved should participate in decision-making. Finally, plans for evaluation of the change process should be made at the same time the change itself is being planned.

Other chapters deal with collecting information needed for effective change, coping with dilemmas in the change process, and accepting personal responsibility for outcomes. The balance of this publication contains a mix of questions, examples, and suggestions designed to stimulate thinking about the change process in schools.

12

Principal Competencies

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170 **Burch, Barbara G., and Danley, W. Elzie.** "Supervisory Role Proficiency: A Self-Assessment." *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 433 (February 1980), pp. 91-97. EJ 215 998.

"Educators who have responsibility for the improvement of instruction are seeking ways to enhance performance in their supervisory roles. This can only be accomplished when one has a clear understanding of the nature of those roles, assesses performance capabilities in them, and determines the priority that should be assigned to each role."

Burch and Danley assert that it is up to the instructional leader to do his or her own assessment of personal abilities and to assign his or her own priorities in the various areas of supervisory responsibility. To help administrators in that undertaking, the authors present their Supervisory Role Proficiency self-assessment instrument and directions for its use.

The instrument presents various characteristics and tasks that reflect the results of studies on the activities supervisors engage in. These characteristics and tasks are divided among ten roles that are reported to be inclusive of the tasks of supervisors: host-ceremonial, formal-communicator, external contacts, information and dissemination, resource allocation, training and development, observation and evaluation, motivation, crisis management, and maintenance.

A person using the instrument assigns a score of from one to five (five is high) for his or her capability in each of the entries under the ten roles, totals the score for the role, divides the total by the number of entries under the heading, and multiplies the resulting score by a weighting factor that reflects the percent of his or her time the supervisor spends in that role.

Concerning the use of the scores, the authors conclude: "Only the user is in a position to make judgment about the adequacy of a proficiency score in relation to the priority assigned to that role."

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171 **Burgess, Joanne S., and Dermott, R. Allan.** *Leadership Development for Elementary School Principals: Establishing a Competency Base for the Elementary Principalship.* 1978. 33 pages. ED 203 536.

What competencies do educators believe elementary school principals should possess? How do superintendents, supervising principals, teaching principals, teachers under supervising principals, and teachers under teaching principals differ in the values they place on various principal competencies?

These questions were the stimulus for the survey of 478 Maine educators described in this paper. The authors studied lists of principal competencies developed by earlier researchers and then developed their own fifty-four item competency list. The respondents were asked to indicate on a seven-point scale how important they felt each competency was for the elementary principal.

The three top-ranked competencies were "demonstrate a genuine personal interest in children," "provide adequate support to staff in relationships with parents and students," and "display consideration of others." These three items, plus five more of the ten top-ranked competencies, were classified as "human" skills by the authors. Competencies could also be classified as primarily "conceptual" or "technical."

The rankings were not uniform across the five groups, however. Statistical analysis showed that significant differences existed between groups for twenty-nine of the fifty-four items. Not surprisingly, teaching principals were in better agreement with teachers than were supervising principals. Teaching principals also rated human, interpersonal skills as more important management skills than technical, administrative skills. These findings, the authors conclude, "show that individuals undergo a change in values as they move from active classroom participation to active involvement in administrative tasks." The authors discuss each of the twenty-nine differences in some detail and include the survey instrument they used.

172 **Caldwell, Brian J.** "A Competency-Based Approach to Administrator Assessment and In-Service." Paper presented at the International Congress on Education, Vancouver, B.C., June 1979. 19 pages. ED 180 079.

Currently, procedures for evaluating school administrators in Canada and the United States are largely "haphazard and eclectic," says Caldwell. Likewise, the provision of professional development activities for administrators is often unsystematic and is sometimes nonexistent. In this paper, Caldwell offers a promising remedy for these ills—an approach to inservice and assessment that is "based on the systematic identification of competencies" needed by administrators.

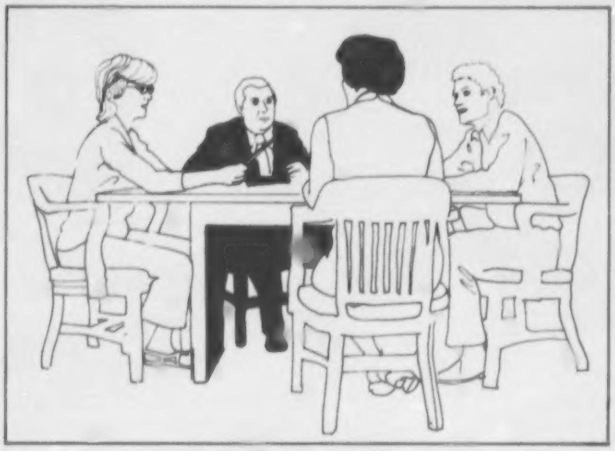
Caldwell first discusses the development of the competency movement as a response to "the press for accountability" and the "need for more personalization in public institutions." Next, the definition of "competency" is discussed; Caldwell, following an earlier researcher, defines a competency as "the presence of characteristics or the absence of disabilities which render a person fit, or qualified, to perform a specific task or to assume a defined role."

A number of studies have been conducted to determine the competencies needed by school administrators, of which Caldwell describes three. The lists of competencies generated by these studies form the basis of several systematic approaches to administrator evaluation and inservice.

Two evaluation programs described by Caldwell use competencies as their focal points. In one, an "ideal" competency profile of a principal is generated by a local task force. "Actual" profiles are then compared to this ideal. In the second, developing an awareness of needed competencies is the initial step, and it is followed by "training," "implementation," "evaluation," and "follow-up."

Using lists of competencies for assessment, Caldwell notes, often requires that each competency be further specified to meet local needs. For example, if the statement "The principal enlists the aid of the community in assessing needs and setting broad instructional goals" is used, the school principal and his or her supervisor should list beforehand the specific activities that will effectively involve the community.

Competency assessment procedures are easily incorporated into professional development programs. Caldwell describes several competency-based inservice programs and discusses the importance of matching learning resources with deficient competencies.



173 **Ellett, Chad D.** *Results Oriented Management in Education. Project R.O.M.E. The Continued Refinement and Development of the Georgia Principal Assessment System and Its Application to a Field-Based Training Program for Public School Principals. Assessment Design—Procedures—Instrumentation—Field Test Results. Final Report: Volume I.* Atlanta; and Athens: Georgia State Department of Education; and College of Education, University of Georgia, 1976. 222 pages. ED 131 590.

The results reported in this final report of Project R.O.M.E. (Results Oriented Management in Education) should prove heartening to principals. Overall, it shows that the principals who participated in a field-oriented program—Field Oriented Competency Utilization System (FOCUS)—perceived themselves as more competent after the program than they did before the program.

Apparently, it was not self-deception that caused the principals to see themselves as more competent. Analysis indicates that a variety of sources (teachers, students, and outside observers) also saw the principals as more competent. Of these groups, teachers who worked directly with the principals on school problems saw the principals as more frequently and more effectively performing indicators of competency.

The majority of the report is a description of the history and development of the Georgia Principal Assessment System (GPAS) and a summary of the results of using the GPAS to evaluate the effectiveness of FOCUS.

The evaluation examined the frequency and effectiveness with which the principals studied carried out the competency indicators identified earlier in the project. Two classes of variables were used. Input variables are ratings of the principals' competency in administrative operations (data collecting, planning, communicating, decision-making, implementing, and evaluating) and in administrative responsibility (curriculum and instruction, staff personnel, pupil personnel, school community interface, fiscal management, support management, and systemwide policies and operation). Mediating variables are student assessments of characteristics of the school learning environment and teachers' satisfaction in job-related areas.

On the whole, both the external evaluation and the evaluation by the participants support the impact of the training program on the principals' performance.

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174 **Goddu, Roland.** *Observation Instruments for Identifying the Competencies of Principals in School Practice. No. 152.* Durham, New Hampshire: New England Program in Teacher Education, 1977. 27 pages. ED 143 627.

Goddu's observation schedules are firmly within the tradition of competency-oriented principal evaluation in that they present a method of documenting actual classroom practice. The schedules, however, go beyond the norm by including other actors present in the setting in which the principal is being evaluated: teachers, students, and others (including department heads, superintendents, board members, and parents).

For instance, under the competency "Principal recommends candidates for employment" there are three indicators of the principal's actions (prepares a written summary of checklist and interview results, prepares a written recommendation for superintendent and board action, and reviews his or her recommendation with the faculty and the community). Others also have roles to perform that are directly related to the principal's actions. Teachers, department heads, and community members are to review and comment on the recommendations; board members and the superintendent are to review the recommendations and select the candidate.

The schedule has a separate page for each of twenty-two competencies in the areas of management of the organization, management of resources, community relations, and management of instruction. Next to each indicator is a place to check whether each person involved did or did not accomplish the action and whether he or she partially accomplished the task.

Goddu's approach centers on describing what actually happens in the classroom. It is designed this way out of the conviction that practice is more stable than expectations are and that knowing what exists forms a strong foundation for making decisions on what to change if competence is to be demonstrated.

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175 **Hay, Gordon C.** "How Has the Principal's Role Changed? Four Areas in Which the Past Twenty Years Have Made Major Alterations." *Education Canada,* 20, 4 (Winter 1980), pp. 26-29. EJ 239 236.

"The competencies needed to be a school principal in 1980 [have] changed dramatically from those required in 1960." Moreover, the authority held by the principal has declined over the past twenty years as much as the responsibilities of the principalship have increased.

These are two of the findings of a small study of Ontario administrators and teachers conducted by Hay. He asked administrators at all levels of the educational hierarchy and officers of the Ontario Teachers' Federation to comment on changes in three areas over the past twenty years: competencies needed by principals, training programs for principals, and the relationship between principals' and teachers' associations. In addition, respondents were asked to speculate about the causes for these changes.

Maintaining cooperative relations with teachers and with the community has become increasingly important. "In consequence," says Hay, "competence in the skills of human relations and political awareness have replaced academic scholarship and teaching ability as the criteria for success as a school principal."

The need for principals to have increased legal awareness was confirmed by the respondents, and there was unanimous agreement that management has replaced teaching "as the major requirement for fulfilling the role." Summing up, the five most important competencies needed by the principal in the eighties are "the ability to manage, skill in human relations, knowledge in setting objectives for curriculum development, skill in the supervision and evaluation of program and personnel, and an understanding of legal rights and responsibilities."

Causes of these changes are numerous. One major cause identified by respondents was "the new social climate created by the decline of public trust in schools." Other causes mentioned were growth in the principal's responsibilities, increased demands for accountability, and collective negotiations.

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176 **Klopf, Gordon J.** *The Principal and Staff Development in the School (With a Special Focus on the Role of the Principal in Mainstreaming).* New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1979. 97 pages. ED 168 730.

Klopf writes about the entire process of staff development, to be sure, but his emphasis is on the principal's role in that process. He observes, "The reality is that if principals don't assume the responsibility for staff development and some enactment of a real enabling role there may be no one in the system to do it."

Klopf outlines the establishment of a development program to change attitudes and behaviors of the staff and to increase its collective competence. Consistently his focus remains on the skills of the principal because "it takes a competent principal who can initiate, facilitate, energize, and make things happen" to produce an inservice program. Klopf lists thirty ways the principal uses himself or herself as an enabling resource for the staff. These thirty ways are presented as competencies, by which term Klopf includes knowledge, attitudes, values, and performance skills. These competencies include analyzing the climate for change in the school and developing survey procedures to assess the educational needs and expectations in the community.

Klopf presents separate chapters dealing with the need of the person who is planning staff development programs to understand the process of growth and what is meant by being an enabling person. He also covers such areas as the planning and organizing of a program, the activities and processes in one, and its evaluation.

A separate chapter on the principal's role in mainstreaming emphasizes specific competencies required of the principal. Klopf presents seven broad competencies required for this crucial area and breaks each into knowledge, values and attitudes, and actions.

177 **Lyons, James E.** "Competencies Needed by Beginning Secondary School Principals." *NASSP Bulletin,* 65, 446 (September 1981), pp. 59-66. EJ 249 890.

Schools of educational administration attempt to give prospective secondary principals the competencies they will need in the principalship. Most practicing school administrators, however, would likely admit that a large portion of their actual training was gained "on the job."

What competencies, though, Lyons asks, do experienced principals and superintendents think beginning principals *should* have before they start practicing? What level of proficiency should they have for each competency, and when in their training should they gain this competency?

To determine the answers to these questions, Lyons surveyed a random sample of experienced principals and superintendents in a southeastern state. The survey instrument included a list of forty-four basic competencies that earlier research had identified as being necessary for the successful administration of a secondary school. Respondents were asked to indicate when each competency should be gained—during preservice coursework, during internship, or on the job—and whether the beginning principal should simply be familiar with a competency, should understand how to perform the skill, or should be able to successfully demonstrate the competency.

The respondents indicated that beginning principals should possess thirty-five of the competencies at the application level, eight at the understanding level, and one at the familiarity level. Paradoxically, however, the same respondents thought that thirty-one of the competencies were best gained on the job, three during internship, and ten in preservice coursework.

How, then, do beginning principals, before they are hired, gain competencies that are best gained on the job? Lyons cannot explain this inconsistency, but suggests that the respondents "would favor a field-based, more practical approach for acquiring the competencies rather than coursework or an internship."

178 **McCabe, Dennis P., and Compton, Jack.** *Role Acquisition and Competency Development of Educational Administrators in the Lower Rio Grande Valley.* 1974. 81 pages. ED 130 383.

Two fundamental questions are posed: "How do school administrators become competent? How do school administrators internalize acceptable role behaviors, attitudes, and expectations?"

Not in university preparation programs seems to be the answer to both questions. Among the conclusions of this study of administrators (principals, assistant principals, superintendents, assistant superintendents, and central office administrators) are that university preparation is deficient and ineffective and that informal modes of learning administrative roles and competencies are more important than formal modes. The study recommends that the best aspects of formal and informal modes of skill development should be merged in university programs.

The authors note four informal methods that emphasize the development of skills—modeling superordinates, performing administrative-like duties, becoming certified, and learning on the job. When asked which skills led to their being chosen for administrative roles, the respondents emphasized human relations and personal skills and qualities that affect a person's ability to communicate effectively. These qualities and skills include self-awareness, self-confidence, a sense of humor, patience, and a willingness to compromise.

The competencies that should be taught in preparation programs fall into seven broad areas: human relations, communication, knowledge of self, knowledge of role, values, tolerance for ambiguity, and critical thinking.

179 **McIntyre, Kenneth E., and Grant, Ed A.** "How Principals, Teachers, and Superintendents View the Principalship." *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 433 (February 1980), pp. 44-49. EJ 215 992.

McIntyre and Grant suggest that principals who are interested in evaluating their own performance might want to use the discrepancy model the authors have developed.

Whether one uses the model or not, every principal should be interested in the results of the authors' examination of the priority rating principals, superintendents, and teachers gave to eight areas of principal competence, the ratings the groups gave to the principal's performance in those areas, and the discrepancy between the sets of ratings.

The eight areas for which ratings were obtained (community relations, staffing, time and space, goal setting, noninstructional services, materials and equipment, program evaluation, and inservice training) are groupings of the thirty-two "instructional leader competencies" developed elsewhere by McIntyre.

There are significant differences and similarities in the ratings. For example, principals and teachers were close in their two top priority ratings; principals rated staffing and community relations in that order, whereas teachers reversed the two. Superintendents, on the other hand, agreed with principals on the value of staffing but placed goal setting second, the area both teachers and principals rated fourth.

In an interesting case of agreement, when it came to evaluating the principal's performance, teachers and principals reversed the two top ratings, but agreed on the next six in order. Principals and superintendents were in agreement about the rank ordering of the principal's performance in all eight areas. The two groups did not agree, however, on the level of achievement of the skills. This was not an isolated outcome, as the mean ratings show that principals rated both the importance of their duties and their achievement of them more highly than did the other two groups.

Not only did the principals rate themselves most highly on both importance of their skills and the level of their performance; they saw the least amount of discrepancy between their values and their achievement. Superintendents saw the most discrepancy.

180 **Miller, Brian P., and others.** *Competency-Based Community Education Administration. Volume I: The Research Report.* Tempe: Southwest Regional Center for Community Education Development, Arizona State University, 1979. 58 pages. ED 168 200.

McCleary, Lloyd E., and others. *Competency-Based Community Education Administration. Volume II: The Monograph.* 71 pages. ED 168 201.

Paddock, Susan C., and others. *Competency-Based Community Education Administration. Volume III: The Manual.* 94 pages. ED 168 202.

These three volumes are the result of a long-term effort to identify the competencies needed by persons in four administrative roles in community education—superintendents, district coordinators, principals, and program directors. Not only was the object of the study to identify the competencies and indicators of competency, but also to get the practitioners' assessments of the best way these competencies should be learned and the level of achievement that indicates acceptable performance.

The lists of competencies generated by the project should be of interest to all administrators, whether or not they are involved in community education. So, too, should be the instruments developed. The Quadrant Assessment Model (QAM) has persons in a particular administrative role rate competencies on an "ideal" form (to obtain the person's judgment on the competencies' importance) and on a "real" form (to obtain the person's view on how well he or she and others perform the competencies). The information generated is intended to be useful in a wide range of areas, including the creation of role descriptions, preservice programs, on-the-job assessment of performance, needs assessments for inservice programs, and certification standards.

181 **Seal, Edgar Z.** *Development, Implementation, and Evaluation of a Model Program for Evaluating School Principals. Maxi-II Practicum Report.* 1977. 245 pages. ED 156 679.

In a situation familiar to many administrators, Seal was confronted with tools inadequate for evaluating principals and with a history of resistance to suggested changes in those tools. The tools—a checklist and a one-page summary form—included items that were difficult to measure objectively and were based on hearsay or guesswork. This report documents the project that Seal led to develop, test, and evaluate a new method, a competency-based method, of principal evaluation for his district.

The model Seal developed had four specific goals: "To identify for each participating principal those management skills needing improvement or development. To achieve cooperation between the principal and the evaluator in the attainment of school, District and personal objectives. To provide a basis for District establishment of minimum school principal competence standards in specified areas. To indicate the potential benefit of reassigning certain principals to areas of greater competency (e.g., to the classroom)."

The program has at its center a list of twenty-one standards of competent performance. Each standard has three parts: a statement of general behavior, indicators that identify the behavior, and criteria against which to measure the level of performance. These twenty-one standards are ranged over areas of the principal's role that include management skills, communication, business management, school-community relations, personnel management, curriculum/program development, and analysis and evaluation.

The standards can serve as a source of direction for professional development, as a basis for determining if principals meet the minimum competence standards of the district, and as a basis for the principal evaluation program.

Seal not only outlines the competencies for his evaluation program but includes the administrative procedures for implementing the plan. Necessary forms are included, as well as extensive documentation of actual evaluations of three principals. The district's principals have responded favorably to the model, and it is recognized as an improvement over the previous method of evaluation.

182 **Walters, Donald L., editor**. *Perceptions of Administrative Competencies, A Survey of School Principals and Superintendents.* 1979. 38 pages. ED 172 361.

A phrase that appears repeatedly in Walters's summary is the "competencies were perceived to be acquired primarily on the job," a finding that will not surprise many principals. The results do give preparation programs some credit, however.

Sixty-five principals from school districts in Pennsylvania and New Jersey were asked to indicate how important he or she thought each of thirty-five competencies was, whether each competency was acquired primarily on the job or in preservice training, and the degree to which his or her preparation program helped with acquisition of the competency. The competencies were divided into five areas: curriculum and instruction, funds and facilities, school-community relations, pupil personnel services, and professional support services.

Although the principals saw that all but five competencies were learned primarily on the job, they reported that, in all areas, their preparation program was of "some assistance" in acquiring the skills. The five skills learned primarily before entry to the job were all in the area of curriculum and instruction. These skills were related to understanding theory, interpreting research, applying statistics, and planning programs. In another bright spot for the universities, the principals reported that preparation programs had been of "great assistance" in helping them understand due process and develop rules and regulations for students.

On the whole, the superintendents examined were less critical of preparation programs. The superintendents were asked the same three questions as the principals but concerning sixty-two competency statements ranged into seven areas (curriculum and instruction, personnel, organization management, finance and business management, facilities, political and intergovernmental relationship, and school-community relations). The superintendents reported that fifteen competencies were acquired primarily before entry on the job. The only area in which the preparation program was viewed as of no assistance was political and intergovernmental relationship.

The study was conducted by the Department of Educational Administration of Temple University to assess its program and to plan for the future. The competencies examined were drawn from the literature. Principals noted that nineteen (49 percent) of the skills were very important and the rest were important. Superintendents rated sixty-two (60 percent) very important, one (supervising food service operations) of little importance, and the rest important.

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183 **Wochner, Raymond E., editor**. *Competency-Based Preparation of Educational Administrators. Tasks, Competencies, and Indicators of Competencies. Educational Services Bulletin No. 52.* Tempe: Bureau of Educational Research Services, Arizona State University, 1977. 96 pages. ED 145 510.

The lion's share of this bulletin is devoted to extensive lists of tasks, competencies, and indicators of competencies for superintendents, secondary principals, elementary principals, instructional leaders, business managers, and personnel directors. Although Wochner cautions the reader that competencies and indicators should be taken as representative rather than definitive and as subject to change, the lists are impressive.

Not only does Wochner deal with more roles in the school than do other writers, the lists of competencies and indicators are more detailed. For the superintendent alone, Wochner presents thirty-four task areas ranging from setting his or her time priorities to planning and effecting the closing of facilities. Each task comes with its own list of competencies and the competencies with lists of indicators.

The intent of the study was for Arizona State University to use the information to help it design its preparation program so that future administrators would leave with the skills acceptable for entry-level positions in most school districts. Nevertheless, the competencies are not intended to be useful solely in the preparation program but are also thought to be useful in such areas as the evaluation of the skills of job applicants and the design of inservice programs.

To create the competencies and indicators, teams of administrators in the positions being studied gathered under the auspices of the university to, among other things, react to two basic questions: "(1) What tasks are normally expected of persons in these respective positions? and (2) What competencies are required to accomplish each of these tasks at a satisfactory professional level of quality?" The competencies and indicators listed grew out of the discussion and subsequent efforts to refine the work.

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184 **Zechman, Harry T.** "Are Principals Competent in the Instructional Leadership Domain?" *NASSP Bulletin,* 61, 413 (December 1977), pp. 21-25. EJ 169 758.

"Yes" says Zechman to the question in the title of his article: "the secondary school principal of today demonstrates to both his subordinates and his superordinates those instructional leadership competencies that are needed."

This was the encouraging conclusion of Zechman's research to discover the competencies most critical to the instructional leadership role of the secondary principal. To accomplish this task, Zechman took the thirty-two instructional leadership competency statements indentified by McIntyre and had superintendents, secondary teachers, and secondary principals in forty Pennsylvania school districts rate which are the most critical. The respondents were asked to create lists of the competencies that are needed by principals and those that principals demonstrate.

The lists of the ten highest rated "needed" and "demonstrated" competencies indicate agreement among the groups that the principal is doing his job. For instance, each group's list included the supervisory competencies of observing and evaluating teachers, assigning and reassigning staff members, and recommending the hiring or reemployment of staff. Although this agreement that the principal is doing what needs to be done is strong support for the principal, there is one area of concern. Zechman found that principals do not demonstrate three competencies (setting goals, relating student needs to goals, and communicating about goals and needs) that each group rated as an important need.

On the whole, Zechman's results agree with those of McIntyre and Grant in establishing that teachers and principals are in close agreement about the competencies that are needed and demonstrated by principals. Superintendents also agree, but not so strongly.

13

Reducing Student Absenteeism

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185 **Bartlett, Larry; Fitzsimmons, Robert; Miles, Carl; Olbrecht, Gayle; Scala, David; and Smith, Giles.** *Absences. A Model Policy and Rules.* Des Moines: Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, 1978. 17 pages. ED 162 433.

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, the average absenteeism on any given day is 8 percent—twice the rate expected from illness alone. Add to this the results of several recent studies showing correlations between attendance and achievement in school subject matter, and the importance of improving attendance becomes clear.

Successful attendance policies have several common features, state the authors of this committee report. They are clearly specific in their requirements and expectations, well publicized, and consistently and strongly enforced. Participation in the formulation of such policies is broadly based, involving administrators, teachers, students, and parents. Also, immediate followups on absences are made by letter, telephone, or other means.

Simply formulating a policy statement is not enough, the authors emphasize. The policy must be brought to life with rules that detail the policy's application to specific circumstances. Following their own advice, the authors devote a few paragraphs to policy and philosophy and several pages to the rules themselves.

The rules cover such areas as attendance notification of parents, what can and cannot be considered a legitimate absence, provisions for makeup work, procedures for disciplinary measures in the case of continued unexcused absences, truancy officer appointments and responsibilities, and review procedures when a student or parent requests a reconsideration of a teacher's or principal's decision.

The authors comment on many of the rules and leave blanks where numbers of days or absences need to be specified. A bibliography contains thirty references to research studies pertaining to the attendance-achievement relationship.

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186 **Bolds, Gloria S.** *Reducing Truancy by Using Student Aides in the Attendance Office.* 1977. 31 pages. ED 146 493.

In a survey of schools in Prince Georges County (Maryland), Bolds found that administrators were overburdened by their many duties and had little time left for attendance matters. As a result, parents were not consistently notified when their children were absent, and teachers were not given consistent feedback on the legality of student absences.

At Bethune Junior High, where Bolds is vice-principal, the problem was first addressed by using parental volunteers in the attendance office. But parental help, though welcome, turned out to be too inconsistent. Finally, a student aide program was implemented that, according to Bolds, worked quite well.

Students were able to work for either academic credit or for pay, with the money coming from a county youth employment agency. This agency stipulated that the participants come from low-income families and be at least fourteen years old. Participants were selected by the guidance department and by the school's work-study coordinator and were trained by the administrative staff.

Duties included sorting attendance forms, typing up absentee bulletins for distribution to teachers, calling and typing letters to parents, using the school's copying machine, and contacting teachers through the school's P.A. system.

The benefits of using student aides are many, says Bolds. Students gain valuable work experience, improve their communication skills, and become acquainted with the operational procedures of the school. In addition, students are consistently available and often have information about other students that adults do not have.

187

Brimm, Jack L.; Forgety, John; and Sadler, Kenneth. "Student Absenteeism: A Survey Report." *NASSP Bulletin,* 62, 415 (February 1978), pp. 65-69. EJ 173 495.

What do Tennessee high school principals think of student absenteeism? According to this survey report, most believe that absenteeism can be reduced by stricter enforcement of attendance policies; paradoxically, however, most also believe that "enforcement of existing attendance laws contributes to the absentee problem by confining the unwilling learner."

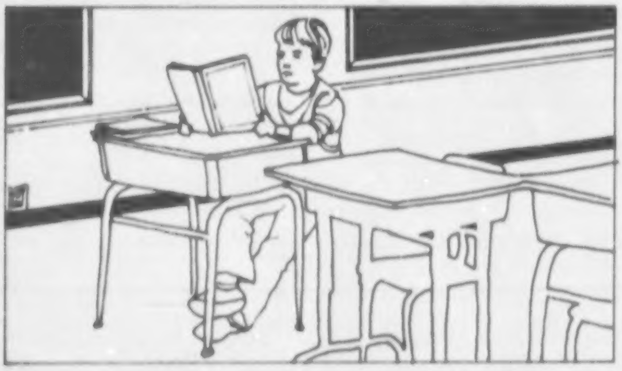
Most of the respondents indicated that too much administrative time is spent on attendance matters. On the other hand, 40 percent felt that the importance of regular attendance is not emphasized enough by the schools.

The three primary causes of absenteeism were thought to be compulsory attendance laws, the decrease of parental control, and changes in the students' attitudes toward school and authority in general. Solutions to the problem, however, were harder to identify.

Stricter enforcement of the attendance requirement and changes in parental and student attitudes were common responses. But there was also a strong sentiment that "schools should develop and implement an alternative curriculum for the chronic absentee and that class schedules should be flexible enough to permit students to attend school and work part-time."

The authors also present a few of their own suggestions for reducing absenteeism. For example, special programs and events could be presented regularly on Mondays and Fridays, when absenteeism is greatest, to "entice students to delay their plans for an extended weekend." Changes could be made in the curriculum, too, to make school more interesting. Credit could be given for work done on a political campaign, on an environmental project, or in an office or clinic.

Finally, schools could survey students about absenteeism and find out just why they aren't attending. In the end, the underlying causes of absenteeism should be treated instead of just the obvious symptoms.



188

De Leonibus, Nancy. *Absenteeism: The Perpetual Problem. The Practitioner, Vol. V, No. 1.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, October 1978. 13 pages. ED 162 424.

Student absenteeism is a persistent multifaceted problem caused by a variety of personal, family, community, and school factors. De Leonibus compares the problem to an immortal, multiheaded monster that no amount of administrative action can conquer. So, she advises, "Be satisfied with small victories in the battle for good attendance."

A recent study in a Connecticut high school found that even a very strict attendance policy will meet with only partial success. The author of this study concluded that "additional strategies for attendance beyond restrictive or punitive rules should be devised" to improve student attendance.

Incentive programs, too, have had mixed results. One that has worked for an Iowa high school involves a "10 percent grade bonus for students with perfect attendance for a 45-day grading period." One absence earns a 9 percent bonus, two an 8 percent bonus, down to zero for 10 absences or more. Administrators should check state codes before implementing such a program, however, because certain states (such as Washington) outlaw the lowering of a student's grades solely on the basis of absenteeism or tardiness.

Perhaps the most useful part of this publication is its descriptions of several varied attendance programs that have proved effective in reducing absenteeism. One school in Massachusetts, for example, asks parents to sign one of two contracts. The first requires the parents to provide a note to the school after an absence, and it specifies that parents be notified *only* when attendance becomes problematic. The second contract requires parents to notify the school the morning of a student's absence. If the student is absent and no call has been received, the school calls the parents. Attendance has increased from 89 to 93 percent since this plan's implementation.

189

Educational Research Service. *Student Absenteeism. ERS Report.* Arlington, Virginia: 1977. 52 pages. ED 143 096.

An excellent introduction to the problem of student absenteeism, this exhaustive report reviews research on the phenomenon and chronicles sixteen successful programs to improve attendance used in schools across the nation.

The research review presents a number of basic studies (one reveals that attendance is related significantly to parent's occupation) as well as some rather unusual findings (maternal employment, for example, appears to have no influence on student absenteeism).

One study found that absences of eleven-year-olds of upper and middle class background did not correlate with achievement or ability, yet eleven-year-olds of other social classes who are frequently absent score poorly in achievement. A number of studies indicate that positive reinforcement can be used successfully to reduce absentee rates.

Most of the sample programs to improve attendance are explained in some detail, and many include samples of forms or letters used in the programs. A Boulder program recognizes different levels of student maturity by allowing teachers to make individual contracts with students concerning attendance requirements. Those who are mature enough to work independently are not required to attend every class.

Two programs based in New Orleans and Michigan provide alternative programs for chronically absent students who are dissatisfied with the regular program or performing poorly academically. Both programs are individualized and provide weekly problem-solving groups. Both programs, like the other fourteen programs described in this report, claim significant improvements in attendance.

190

Fiordaliso, Richard; Lordeman, Ann; Filipczak, James; and Friedman, Robert M. "Effects of Feedback on Absenteeism in the Junior High School." *Journal of Educational Research,* 70, 4 (March-April 1977), pp. 188-92. EJ 165 044.

As part of the PREP (Preparation through Responsive Educational Programs) research project, an experimental group of low-achievement students was given special attention by the attendance office. Parents of experimental group children received phone calls and letters more immediately than did parents of control group children and, in addition, received positive feedback when their children improved their attendance. Although average attendance of this group actually decreased by about half a day from the previous year, in a control group the attendance decreased by three days in the same period. The special attention provided by the attendance office took about forty-five extra minutes of staff time per day for the thirty students in the experimental group.

Another low-achievement group in the PREP research project attended an "intensive social skill training" class one period each day as well as six regular classes. The attendance of this group improved from an average of fourteen absences the first year of the program to eleven absences the second year, though no special attendance procedure was used.

The authors note that "the special procedures of the attendance program were not adequate for students with high degrees of absence the previous year": the three poorest attenders got worse over the course of the study. The authors also point out that the experimental group members were also enrolled in a special "academic phase" of the PREP project, in which they attended individualized reading, math, and English classes each day. Thus, it is difficult to determine "to what extent the specific effects of the attendance program may be separated from the general effects of involvement in the PREP program."

191

Fotinos, Tom. *Napa High School Attendance Policy. An Experiment to Reduce Unnecessary School Absences.* 1975. 13 pages. ED 119 353.

In response to a continuing absenteeism rate of 8 to 10 percent, the faculty and administration of Napa (California) High School formulated a new and comprehensive attendance policy. Among the new provisions were an independent study program for chronic truants, explicitly stated rules and policies on attendance, and a policy linking minimum attendance with the earning of course credit. The latter provision—which is illegal in some states—was designed to "place more of the responsibility for attendance on the student by making the earning of credit directly contingent on his regular attendance."

The attendance policy designates twelve days' absence per semester as the maximum allowed under normal circumstances. With thirteen or more absences for any class period, "the student risks forfeiture of course credit in that class and can be dropped from class enrollment." Appeals can be made to an Attendance Review Board.

After four, eight, and twelve days of absence from any class period, the teacher of that class is required to complete an attendance report form that is sent to parents. The teacher counsels the student after the fourth absence, whereas after the eighth and twelfth absences both the teacher and an administrator or counselor talk to the student. Also after the eighth absence, a phone call is made to the parent by the teacher or counselor.

In the independent study program designed for problem attenders, the emphasis is placed on the "affective domain of education." Students' interests are assessed, and then efforts are made to help students establish goals and a positive self-image. After less than a year of operation, the absenteeism rate at Napa High was down 50 percent, to between 4 and 5 percent.

192

Grala, Christopher, and McCauley, Clark. "Counseling Truants Back to School: Motivation Combined with a Program for Action." *Journal of Counseling Psychology,* 23, 2 (March 1976), pp. 166-69. EJ 134 273.

"There are three common approaches to persuading people to change their behavior: threat, promise, and instruction." In this well-constructed study, Grala and McCauley investigated the influences of these three factors in getting thirty-two chronic male truants in an inner-city Philadelphia neighborhood back to school.

The experimenters, who worked in a community center frequented by the truants, divided the black and Puerto Rican subjects into groups of eight. Each individual — not knowing he was the subject of an experiment — was approached by the same experimenter, who "was thought to be a credible communicator" for the subjects, because "he had himself been raised in a ghetto area" and because he knew each subject personally as a member of the center staff.

One group received both "threat communication" in the form of a graphic portrayal of the life awaiting the dropout (arrests, street gang violence, prison, drug use, poverty) as well as "supportive instruction" that included counseling on school problems, an offer by the experimenter to accompany the student back to school to talk to counselors and principal, and an offer of individual tutoring and use of the community center for doing homework. A second group received only the threat communication.

Members of the third group were given "optimistic appeal" talks on the "present and future benefits of attending school regularly" as well as the same supportive instruction as group one. Group four received only the optimistic appeal talk.

After four weeks of monitoring school attendance, the group receiving both optimistic appeal and supportive instruction improved the most in attendance, with three members maintaining perfect attendance through the fourth week. Threat appeal with instruction also had a positive influence on attendance, though not as great. Threat appeal alone had a small transient effect, whereas optimistic appeal alone had no apparent effect.

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193 **Johnson, Janis Tyler.** "A Truancy Program: The Child Welfare Agency and the School." *Child Welfare*, 55, 8 (September-October 1976), pp. 573-80. EJ 151 818.

In 1973, Pennsylvania's new Juvenile Act went into effect, redefining truant children as "deprived" rather than "delinquent." Schools thus lost the leverage of the juvenile court system for getting truants back into school and instead had to rely on the rehabilitation and counseling efforts of social welfare agencies. Johnson here describes how the Lancaster County Bureau of Children's Services dealt with the newly defined population of deprived children left on its doorstep.

The first step the bureau took in handling truancy cases was to hold a school conference with the student, the parents, and school personnel in which the caseworker "helped the participants define the problem and formulate a plan to improve the student's attendance." It soon became obvious that the conference alone was doing a great deal of good: about 30 percent of those students that returned to school did so without any further intervention.

For the remaining truants, four major problem areas were identified — school, family, psychological, and social. Where the problem was one of the student feeling disconnected from school, the bureau attempted to "meet the student's needs in school through creative alternative school programs." In some cases, when the student was age sixteen, the bureau provided employment counseling for the student.

Where the problem was familial in nature, the bureau lined up family counseling through the community Family Service Agency. If psychological problems seemed to be the cause of the truancy, the caseworker "initiated and followed through a referral to the Community Mental Health Service." And when peer pressure was diverting students away from school, both the school and the bureau attempted to "connect the student with more positive peer groups."

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194 **Neill, Shirley Boes, editor.** *Keeping Students in School: Problems and Solutions. AASA Critical Issues Report.* Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1979. 74 pages. ED 177 704.

A recent survey of over 1,400 AASA members indicates that keeping students in school is a major problem for the nation's school administrators. In this comprehensive publication, Neill reports the results of this survey in some detail and provides a wealth of important information on the attendance problem. Separate chapters discuss the results of previous studies and polls on school attendance, the reasons students stay away from school, demographic trends and their potential impacts on attendance, school board policies on attendance, and actual school district attendance practices.

The most valuable portion of this publication for practicing school administrators is likely the last chapter, which describes numerous programs to reduce absenteeism and dropout rates. The National Association of Secondary School Principals, says Neill, has identified several factors that are common to successful attendance programs: the attendance policy is strong, it is consistently enforced throughout the school by all staff members, it is well publicized, it requires that followup on absences be immediate, and it has been formulated by administrators, teachers, parents, and students.

One source for information on successful approaches to truancy and other educational problems is the National Diffusion Network (NDN). Neill briefly explains the NDN and how to use it and then describes two NDN programs designed to combat absenteeism. "Project Focus" in Roseville (Minnesota) is an alternative program for potential dropouts. "Project DEEP," now being used in more than two dozen districts, allows students "to complete a project of their own design in an untraditional setting and receive academic credit for it."

Neill goes on to describe numerous other successful approaches to truancy and dropouts, including programs that tie grades to attendance, telephone "wake-up" services for chronically absent students, and daily reports via the school's intercom listing missing students.

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195 **Reynolds, Carol.** "Buddy System Improves Attendance." *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling*, 11, 4 (April 1977), pp. 305-306. EJ 158 417.

The results of a "buddy system" attendance program fully support Reynold's contention that "positive reinforcement when middle/junior high school pupils improve their attendance is one of the best counseling techniques available."

To start the program, the pupil services staff identified the pupils with chronic absenteeism. A social worker took responsibility for the worst pupils, and approximately thirty other students were assigned to the program. Each of these students was asked to choose a buddy—"someone who lived close to them or someone who had a telephone to call them." If the buddy was willing to participate, the pair would check in with the counselor aide each morning, and the aide would record their attendance.

Before beginning the program, the students attended a "motivator party" given by the counseling staff. After six weeks of recording attendance, pairs of buddies that improved their attendance received awards of record albums, picnics, or pizza parties. Reynolds reports that attendance in this group has shown "marked improvement."

One substantial factor in the success of the program, says Reynolds, was the personality of the counselor aide who was "warm, pleasant, and empathetic." In addition to providing positive reinforcement to the students for good attendance, the aide contacted the students' parents when attendance started to drop.

196 **Robins, Lee Nelken, and Ratcliff, Kathryn Strother.** *Long Range Outcomes Associated with School Truancy.* 1978. 35 pages. ED 152 893.

Is school truancy a predictor of deviant behavior in later life? To answer this question, Robins and Ratcliff chose a random sample of one thousand black St. Louis schoolboys and compared their school attendance records with their later adult behavior, as evidenced by police, hospital, employment, and other records. The subjects—all born between 1930 and 1934—were interviewed in the 1960s as part of another study the authors conducted.

One conclusion drawn by the authors was that elementary school truancy—often beginning in the first grade—was a good predictor of high school truancy. Few boys developed truancy after elementary school unless they began other deviant behaviors at the same time. Both elementary and high school truancy predicted incompletion of high school and low adult earnings. And high school truancy was related to a variety of adult deviant behaviors, such as violent behaviors, employment problems, and disciplinary problems in the military.

Another interesting finding was that men who had been truant in elementary school tended to marry women who were similarly truant, and these couples tended to produce truant sons and daughters.

Truancy, the authors note, is often the first deviant childhood behavior to develop and is also readily detectable in routinely kept school records. Thus, intervention at the first sign of truancy may help avert the development of a lifelong pattern of deviant behavior.

197 **Rodgers, Don C.** "Stepping-up School Attendance." *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 440 (December 1980), pp. 122-24. EJ 236 632.

The average student absenteeism rate in the nation's public schools is about 8 percent. National health officials, however, says Rodgers, "estimate the normal rate of pupil absence due to illness to be around four or five percent a year." So what are the schools doing to combat truancy and improve student attendance?

To find out, five high school principals from the Charlotte (North Carolina) school system conducted a one-year study of student attendance improvement programs throughout the country. They found that a wide variety of approaches have been taken to this problem and that "no one has discovered a panacea."

The specific approaches taken by the districts studied were of five types. Some attendance programs rewarded good attendance with exemptions from examinations or with prizes, and some punished excessive absences by withholding credit or by detaining or suspending students. Other districts made home-school contacts and enlisted parental help in combatting absenteeism, or they contacted other agencies, such as health agencies or the juvenile courts. Finally, some districts used alternative programs of various sorts to help motivate students to attend school.

A study of Charlotte's ten high schools showed that absenteeism had increased from 10 to 14 percent between 1972 and 1977. To reverse this trend, the study group recommended that the board of education clearly specify the district's attendance policy and "place more emphasis on the importance of regular attendance," that the superintendent take action to implement this policy, and that individual principals develop attendance improvement programs for their schools. Specific actions that principals could take include sponsoring attendance contests by homeroom, establishing "buddy" systems in which two students are responsible for each other's attendance, and having former students counsel small groups of chronic truants.

198 **Sheats, Daniel, and Dunkleberger, Gary E.** "A Determination of the Principal's Effect in School-Initiated Home Contacts Concerning Attendance of Elementary School Students." *Journal of Educational Research,* 72, 6 (July-August 1979), pp. 10-12. EJ 211 799.

Previous research has clearly shown that the principal can improve the attendance of chronic truants by personally telephoning the student or the student's parents at home. One study, for example, showed that students receiving periodic praise from the principal for good attendance improved their attendance significantly compared to a control group. Another study showed that students improved their attendance when their parents were given feedback and "reinforcement" concerning their child's attendance.

Although these are encouraging results, state the authors of this report, "it is quite evident that the principal's varied responsibilities may, in many cases, prohibit the allocation of the necessary time resources to such a task." Is it possible, however, that some other staff member could make the calls to truants' parents and have the same positive influence on attendance?

To find out, the authors conducted a carefully controlled study of elementary students in rural Maryland who had missed more than fifteen days in the previous year. Half the students were contacted by the principal following their third, sixth, ninth, twelfth, and fifteenth absences, and half were contacted by a school secretary. "Upon each of the occasions the principal and the secretary used prepared scripts to ensure uniformity of the telephone calls." The phone calls varied in tone: the first ones reminded the parents of good attendance and gave the parents positive reinforcement, while later calls became more and more "serious."

Results showed that both the principal and the secretary had equivalent effects on improving attendance. The principal's group of eighteen students were absent an average of fourteen days, down from twenty-two days the previous year. The secretary's group improved from twenty-five days absent to seventeen. The use of school staff in the communication process, the authors conclude, can free the principal "from the time-consuming task of making the home contacts without jeopardizing the anticipated benefits."

199 **Wright, John S.** "Student Attendance: What Relates Where?" *NASSP Bulletin*, 62, 415 (February 1978), pp. 115-17. EJ 173 504.

In response to poor attendance in the state's high schools, the Virginia Legislature in 1974 commissioned a study of attendance and its relationship to various school, curriculum, and staff characteristics. Many "statistically significant relationships" were found.

The strongest correlation was between population density and attendance rate: urban schools consistently had the poorest attendance, suburban schools had a better rate, and schools in "other areas" had the best. Larger schools, in general, had poorer attendance.

In the urban schools, the strongest correlation was between attendance and the ages of the staff. Younger staffs had better attendance. Also, schools with relatively more teachers had better attendance.

Another interesting finding was that, in general, the more freedom and choice given to students, the better was their attendance. For example, in urban schools attendance was better at "those schools which offered a higher percentage of their state required courses in the form of phase electives." In both urban and suburban areas, those schools with work programs had higher attendance rates. And in suburban schools, "the more freedom of campus ingress and egress allowed students during normal school hours, the better the attendance."

In the curriculum area, the urban schools that offered more music classes had better attendance, as did the suburban schools that offered more health and physical education classes. Schools offering more of their courses as nine-week courses had better attendance than those offering a higher percentage of year-long courses.

14

School-Based Management

200 **Caldwell, Brian J.** "Implementation of Decentralized School Budgeting." Paper presented at Canadian School Trustees' Association Congress on Education, Toronto, June 1978. 24 pages. ED 161 148.

Although truly participative budgeting processes have long been advocated, only recently have some small and medium-sized districts actually implemented decentralized budgeting. Caldwell here reviews the implementation of school-based budgeting to date, discusses the problems encountered by districts implementing and operating such systems, and offers advice for districts contemplating school-based budgeting plans.

In a 1977 study of decentralization in Alberta, Caldwell found that principals' primary difficulties during implementation concerned their conceptions of their own roles and technical difficulties in the administration of the budgeting process. Of particular concern were problems caused by a lack of information on costs, expenditures, and budget classifications. The difficulties encountered appeared to support "the often-expressed view that school-based budgeting results in burdensome bookkeeping for school personnel."

After implementation, principals still reported that a lack of accurate and timely information from the central office was a major problem. Most schools reported "inadequate allocations in decentralized accounts," prompting principals to remark that the achievement of flexibility—a major goal of school-based budgeting—was being severely hampered by inadequate funding. However, Caldwell also reports research from both the United States and Canada that "has consistently shown that schools do take advantage of the flexibility offered by school-based budgeting."

Districts contemplating school-based budgeting will probably find that decentralization "has important and frequently unanticipated consequences for almost every aspect of school system operations." Caldwell advises districts to develop adequate cost accounting and management information systems before implementation, to avoid a situation in which principals become bookkeepers instead of instructional leaders. Included is an excellent bibliography.

201 **Caputo, Edward M.** "Freedom, Order, and School-Based Management: One Principal's Story." *Principal,* 60, 2 (November 1980), pp. 25-27. EJ 238 653.

One philosophy of schooling, which grew in popularity during the 1960s, encourages schools and classrooms to be "unstructured, free, creative, open, and accepting." Another, perhaps more traditional philosophy, sees orderliness, rules, organization, and discipline as the keys to successful education.

Neither philosophy in its extreme, says Caputo, is conducive to effective schooling. Rather, finding a balance between the ideas of "order and freedom, structure and nonstructure, authoritarianism and nondirectiveness" is the key to successful school management. And school-based management, Caputo contends, provides a management structure in which a productive balance of freedom and form can be struck. In this interesting article, Caputo recounts some of his experiences as a school principal in a district successfully utilizing school-based management and describes the development of his philosophy concerning individual freedom and organizational structure.

During the early years of the district's experience with school-based management, Caputo watched "the 'unfreezing' of the tightly controlled, bureaucratic, centralized administrative structure—a structure that had failed to provide for autonomy, creativity, ownership, and commitment." But along with this unfreezing came the development in Caputo's school of a "newly emerging structure," spawned by improving human relationships within the school. "The system imposed from the top began to be replaced by a system we were building together to meet the specific needs of our school." And because this new system was created by school personnel, they felt greater commitment to it and an expanded sense of "ownership."

Caputo sees his most important job in the school as encouraging "a healthy climate for learning." He helps "glue the organization together," not by controlling each decision but by "facilitating good relationships." And as the prime determiner of the amount and type of structure within the school, Caputo must constantly walk "the tightrope between freedom and constraint."

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202 **Cross, Ray.** "The Administrative Team or Decentralization?" *National Elementary Principal*, 54, 2 (November-December 1974), pp. 80-82. EJ 107 277.

The principalship, states Cross, has arrived at an important crossroads. A decision must now be made between two sharply differing administrative roles, characterized by the terms "administrative team" and "decentralization." Cross here clearly differentiates the two ideas by examining their histories, characteristics, and underlying assumptions.

The idea of the administrative team developed in response to the rise of collective bargaining between teacher unions and administration. Superintendents "reached out to enlist all of the allies that they could get—particularly principals," who occupy a strategic middle ground. Although participative in style, Cross continues, the administrative team idea "is closely linked to a centralized view of administration" in which principals are simply extensions of a unified management. The concept further assumes that "educational needs and values vary little from one attendance area to another," and that centralized decisions are better than the independent and individualized decisions of principals.

The two major forces behind the drive toward decentralization, states Cross, are "the increasing acceptance of pluralism in American education," and the failure of various "externally engineered" educational reform programs. Confidence in "the program" is fading as educators realize that "school improvement results from each school faculty's study of the unique needs of its students and the most effective use of the talents of its faculty."

The decentralization concept assumes that since schools are innately so variable in needs and available skills, they are best administered by a flexible, decentralized organization. It further assumes that faculty will be more committed to program decisions they help make, and that communications will be more effective in a decentralized organization. Cross advocates the concept of decentralization, for its underlying assumptions "are more consistent with what we know about the education enterprise and the findings of social science."

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203 **Decker, Erwin A., and others.** *Site Management. An Analysis of the Concepts and Fundamental Operational Components Associated with the Delegation of Decision-Making Authority and Control of Resources to the School-Site Level in the California Public School System.* Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, 1977. 37 pages. ED 150 736.

The school district has traditionally been the basic decision-making unit in the public school system. But proponents of school-site management—among them California's Governor Brown—argue that the school is a more reasonable unit of managerial function and responsibility. This report—prepared by the Educational Management and Evaluation Commission, an advisory body to the California State Board of Education—is intended as "a compendium of thoughts and ideas related to site management as a form of decentralized decision making in public school administration."

Various definitions have been proposed for decentralization, site management, and participatory management. Participatory management, this report points out, does not necessarily denote decentralization, though it can be a part of any management system. The extent of decentralization can best be determined by identifying the levels at which decisions are made.

However, as indicated by most of the testimony and literature the commission collected, "an effective management system may be centralized in some aspects and decentralized in others." The important considerations are, of course, which aspects should be centralized and which should be decentralized, and to what extents. Several models of organizational structure are discussed in examining this issue.

One section of this diverse publication is a summary of comments on decentralization from the various committees of the California Association of School Business Officials. Other sections discuss—usually in very general terms—some potential obstacles and legal considerations involved in site management, the pros and cons of site management, and various other "factors for consideration" when contemplating decentralization plans. Appendices list decentralized or partially decentralized school districts in California, practitioners who participated in the study and are available as consultants, and literature reviewed by the commission.

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204 **Duncan, D. J., and Peach, J. W.** "School-Based Budgeting: Implications for the Principal." *Education Canada*, 17, 3 (Fall 1977), pp. 39-41. EJ 170 994.

The implementation of school-based management can have many profound effects on a school system's operation. Yet, say Duncan and Peach, even "the single organizational change of transferring discretionary budget control to the school has many far-reaching implications for the principal." In this article, the authors discuss one such transfer of discretionary budget control to the principal and staff of an urban Canadian high school.

Previous to the change, the school requisitioned supplies and equipment in the usual manner from the central office. Under the new system, the school was given full freedom and responsibility for the spending of the $121,000 budget for supplies and equipment. Each academic department developed its own budget and forwarded it for approval to the school's finance committee, which consisted of the department heads. The principal simply "monitored the whole budgeting process and acted as a 'buffer' between the central authorities' attempts to retain some control and the school's attempts to exercise the power allocated to it."

An important issue discussed by Duncan and Peach is the extent to which budgetary decision-making should be decentralized within the school. The decision made by the principal on this matter is quite important, since it will "set the whole climate for decision-making in the school." If the principal shares budgetary decisions with staff members, power struggles may develop among groups. However, "if the principal retains 'residual' power," the authors state, "then for disputed issues the staff has a 'court of appeal'."

The involvement of staff members in budgetary decisions usually demands an improvement in their decision-making and communication skills, which could be achieved through inservice programs. Staff involvement would have the added benefit of broadening staff members' awareness of the total school program.

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205 **Fowler, Charles W.** "School-Site Budgeting and Why It Could Be THE Answer to Your Problems." *Executive Educator*, Premier Issue (October 1978), pp. 37-39. EJ 194 000.

"As nothing else I know of," states Fowler, "school-site budgeting creates opportunities for authentic leadership at the building level and brings parents, students and staff members together." Fowler, the superintendent of Fairfield (Connecticut) schools, here delineates nine steps essential for implementing a school-site budgeting program, and discusses the pros, cons, and assumptions underlying school-site budgeting.

The first step is for the superintendent and school board to estimate the total revenue they will be working with. Next, the "basic costs that cannot or should not be charged directly to individual schools" should be subtracted from total revenue. Fowler includes such items as maintenance, utilities, transportation, intensive special education, and central office expenses as "basic costs." The remaining funds should then be distributed among the individual schools according to a weighted-pupil formula. Fowler suggests one such weighting scheme and gives an example of its use.

Next, the central office should ask each school's principal to develop a budget. The principal is expected to elicit input by a variety of means from staff members, parents, and possibly students. Fowler stresses, however, that "the principal ultimately is responsible for the school's recommended budget"; faculty and parents should know that they are not "voting" on the school budget—the final say is the principal's.

The next step of the budget process is for the principal to present the budget to the central office for review and possible revision. Next, each principal should present to the school board at a public hearing both the budget and a summary of the methods used to elicit faculty and parent input. In this way, says Fowler, "hundreds, perhaps thousands, of persons will have had an opportunity to express opinions about budget priorities—an asset in the budget approval process and an important means of uniting schools and the community."

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206 **Gasson, John.** "Autonomy, the Precursor to Change in Elementary Schools." *National Elementary Principal*, 52, 3 (November 1972), pp. 83-85. EJ 067 451.

The autonomy of individual schools, says Gasson, is the key to more humanistic education. Currently, decisions regarding curriculum and staffing are handed down from on high. Principals and teachers are essentially "cogs fixed into a large, impersonal machine that depends on the machinist (superintendent) to keep every cog uniformly lubricated." But this "stranglehold of the central office" on educational decision-making must be removed, Gasson argues, if quality education is to survive.

One area in which principal autonomy would have important effects is in staffing. Information about specific vacancies would be available in the central office. Prospective applicants for teaching positions would visit the school directly to determine the school's educational philosophy, and hiring would be done by the principal. This "humanitarian method," which is currently practiced in England, contrasts sharply with "the pawnlike treatment received by most teachers in Canada and in the United States."

Curriculum, too, is an area in which principals and teachers should have major influence. Currently, curriculum decisions are made in the central office for the entire district and handed down the hierarchy to principal, teacher, and pupil. As a result, teachers are little more than "textbook technicians for publishers," maintains Gasson, dictated to by the "tribal fathers" who often select curriculum plans based on political, not educational, factors.

The "climate created by decentralization" would encourage teachers to become significant decision-makers, states Gasson, and eventually they would become "the major recognized determiners of the curriculum." New educational ideas, instead of being imported from the central office, "would stem naturally from the philosophy of each school."

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207 **Ingram, Ruben L.** "The Principal: Instructional Leader, Site Manager, EDUCATIONAL EXECUTIVE." *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 8, 5 (May 1979), pp. 23-25. EJ 211 965.

In previous times, principals were often perceived as true educational leaders or "master teachers." With today's new problems of contract negotiations, court mandates, proficiency requirements, community demands, and increased media coverage of schools, principals are being forced away from their traditional instructional role and into the role of middle manager for the district.

What is needed today, states Ingram, "is a leader at the site who embodies the highest qualities of an educator first, and who has acquired the managerial skills to effect the purpose of a school; i.e., the instruction of students." To master these two roles simultaneously, Ingram argues, the principal "must obtain a reasonable amount of executive authority from the superintendent and board." In short, the principal must become the "educational executive" of his or her school.

Being an educational executive requires that the principal have sufficient tools to become an effective and authoritative site leader. For example, principals need increased authority over staffing "in order to assure commitment to the program." They also need discretionary power to organize personnel, funds, and support services to achieve the goals of their school.

Effective executive management also requires that principals have integrity in the eyes of the board and superintendent. As school boards become increasingly aware that neither they nor their central office staff can effectively manage schools from afar, they will gladly relinquish some of their authority to principals, but only "when they become confident that principals have executive ability."

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208 **Lindelow, John.** "School-Based Management." Chapter 4 in *School Leadership: Handbook for Survival,* edited by Stuart C. Smith, Jo Ann Mazzarella, and Philip K. Piele, pp. 94-129. Eugene, Oregon: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1981. 343 pages. ED 209 736.

School-based management is designed to correct what some critics see as an overemphasis on centralization and control in the governance of public schools. In school-based management systems, the locus of control shifts along the centralization-decentralization continuum so that the school replaces the district as the primary unit of educational decision-making. The principal inherits enough authority to become the true leader of the school, and the central office becomes the facilitator instead of the "dictator" of individual schools' actions.

In this monograph—chapter 4 of an informative and well-written handbook on school leadership—author Lindelow clearly explains this recently developed strategy of school management, recounts the history and rationale of the concept, and describes the experiences of numerous districts that have successfully implemented school-based management. The focus throughout is on the complementary roles of the principal and the central office in school-based management systems. Also covered in some depth is the involvement of students, parents, and teachers in the decision-making process at each school site.

Lindelow stresses that not all types of decisions would be decentralized to the school site. The central office would monitor each school's curriculum, effectiveness, and expenditures; would act as a central purchasing agent; would recruit potential employees for the schools; and would make sure that the principal of each school was in fact including others in the school's decision-making process.

Personnel and clients at each school site, on the other hand, would determine the details of the school's budget and the curriculum and would decide whom to hire from the central office's pool of potential employees. The principal would retain final authority and responsibility for the school's functioning, though he or she would be required to involve others in decision-making.

A significant portion of this monograph is devoted to detailed descriptions of seven working school-based management systems in the United States and Canada.

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209 **Parker, Barbara.** "School Based Management: Improve Education by Giving Parents, Principals More Control of Your Schools." *American School Board Journal*, 166, 7 (July 1979), pp. 20-21, 24. EJ 204 749.

The basic philosophy of school based management (SBM), states Parker, is "a return of decision making to the local school level." Although this shift in decision-making power may seem threatening to some educators, several SBM experts interviewed by Parker contend that such a decentralization acually works to the advantage of school boards: when principals and teachers are given the freedom to make policy and budget decisions that affect their schools, they also inherit the responsibility and accountability that go along with that freedom. As a consequence, building-site personnel make high quality decisions regarding the running of their school, since those decisions affect them directly and since they are directly accountable.

The basic change that board members and central office personnel need to make, says Parker, is from the idea of bossing a district to that of managing a district. Instead of determining every detail of a school system's operation as they do now, the central office and board would lay down a framework of goals and guidelines, while the principal, faculty, parents, and students would determine the details of their school's operation.

Of course, Parker notes, "the most difficult decision a system faces is deciding which things are to be controlled at the local building level and which powers are to be retained by the central office staff." There are no pat formulas for such a redistribution, Parker continues, because "like most SBM challenges, those are decisions to be made by everyone involved in its implementation."

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210 **Pierce, Lawrence C.** "Emerging Policy Issues in Public Education." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 58, 2 (October 1976), pp. 173-76. EJ 146 454.

Two possible means of improving the waning performance of public schools, says Pierce, are to improve the technical abilities of educational managers (through management-by-objectives or other systems) and to create free-market competition among schools with education vouchers. Neither proposal, however, has proved to be politically feasible. An "intermediate reform" with real potential for adoption, contends Pierce, is school-site management.

Both school-site management and education vouchers assume that better schooling will result "if consumers are given greater responsibility for deciding what educational services are provided." Both reforms would also encourage greater program flexibility, a condition now largely prevented by centralized administration. Since vouchers are too radical a change for many educators to accept, school-site management may be a viable solution, offering "greater voice" instead of the voucher idea's "greater choice." An additional advantage of site management is that it would leave intact existing legal arrangements between the state and school district.

One source of opposition to school-site management would be the central office. Although the role and influence of the central office would be diminished, site management would not eliminate the need for a central administration. Instead, it "would free the central administration to spend more time on those things it does best," such as financial, monitoring, auditing, and testing activities. Program and personnel planning would, however, become the responsibility of school-site personnel.

Opposition might also come from union leaders, primarily because school-site management would greatly complicate their organizational task. But teacher support can be garnered if the plan gives teachers greater control in the classroom and greater say in school policy decisions.

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211 **Pierce, Lawrence C.** *School Site Management. An Occasional Paper.* Palo Alto, California: Aspen Institute for Humanistic Studies, 1977. 29 pages. ED 139 114.

Centralized district budgeting procedures contain many inherent deficiencies, says Pierce, most of which can be corrected by adopting a decentralized school-site management system. In this publication, Pierce describes in some detail centralized budgeting systems now in use, examines the problems such systems either create or compound, and proposes school-site management as the most effective remedy to these problems. In addition, Pierce discusses the theory of school-site management and possible routes to its implementation.

Contrary to what its proponents argue, contends Pierce, centralized budgeting actually increases education inequalities. As teachers accrue seniority, for example, they tend to "sift toward 'desirable' schools"—those with more middle-class, academically oriented white students—and carry their higher salaries with them. The result can be substantial educational disparities between races or income groups. Centralized budgeting may also impede true equal opportunity by dictating to schools what particular mix of personnel they must have; different student bodies may benefit most from quite different mixtures of personnel, Pierce points out.

Another deficiency of centralized budgeting is that it "contributes to inefficiencies." Standardized budget allocation procedures diminish opportunities for tailoring school programs to students. Also, there are few if any positive financial incentives for teachers or school administrators to be innovative or efficient. Finally, centralized budgeting "stifles citizen participation" because it is carried out on the district level, where individuals have little hope of being heard.

In a school-site management system, individual schools would be given a lump sum of money to work with, the amount depending on the number of students enrolled and the special needs of the students and school. When combined with open enrollment, the active participation of parent advisory councils, and other changes described by Pierce, school-site management could eliminate these and other problems caused by centralized school management.

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212 **Sang, Herb A.** "School-Based Management and the Role of the Principal—Where Does the Buck Stop?" Paper presented at the National Association of Secondary School Principals annual meeting, Miami Beach, Florida, January 1980. 9 pages. ED 184 216.

"A close analogy exists between the school-based management concept and the structure of many corporations," says Sang. The branch manager or regional vice-president of a corporation does not make decisions unilaterally; rather, he or she directs the branch office toward objectives set by the central office. Likewise, in school-based management, principals do not act with "complete autonomy from the total system." Instead, they make decisions within the parameters defined by the school board and central administration.

This observation and the others Sang makes in this paper are not mere theoretical propositions. They are based on Sang's experiences as the superintendent of the Duval County (Florida) school district, which has been using school-based management since 1976. Sang explains the beginnings of school-based management in

Florida, describes the dismantling of long-standing "institutional kingdoms" in the change to the new management system, and comments on several aspects of the school-based management concept.

The level of funding each school in Duval County receives is determined by a complex formula that is designed to provide for each school according to its needs. Once the money is distributed, however, school-based personnel—again acting "within broad district guidelines"—decide how to spend it.

As superintendent, Sang made a commitment that principals would be "front line decision makers" in the district. This commitment, he notes, "required a reassessment of each principal to determine competence, enthusiasm, commitment to system goals, and flexibility to change."

"I suppose school-based management is much like democracy," Sang concludes. "It may not be the best form of organization, but it is certainly better than all others." It allows individuals to develop their full potential, "opens unlimited horizons for creativity," and can be a rewarding and even exciting form of school governance.

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213 **Weischadle, David E.** "School-Based Management and the Principal." *Clearing House*, 54, 2 (October 1980), pp. 53-55. EJ 233 510.

Since World War II, the power of the principal has diminished considerably. Other levels of school governance—including the central office, state educational agencies, and the federal Office of Education—have gained most of the power the principal lost. The principal is now considered by many to be a mere "middle manager"—a "mediator between a hostile board and many militant teachers."

But there are approaches to school leadership emerging in the literature, says Weischadle, that reestablish the principal "as a leader in innovation." One of these approaches, which emphasizes school-site decision-making and a strong principal, is school-based management.

School-based management shifts the locus of decision-making from the central office to the local school. It emphasizes the fact that the principal is the chief administrator of the school and "returns to the principal many of the discretionary powers he had possessed in years past." In particular, the principal regains authority over personnel, budget, and curriculum matters that have in recent years been dominated by the central office.

In systems utilizing school-based management, this transfer of power back to the school site is usually combined with some sort of participative decision-making at the school site. Parents, teachers, and students aid in policy development and priority setting through involvement on a "school council." Thus, says Weischadle, a district adopting school-based management is saying two things. "One is that it has faith in the ability of its principals to conduct appropriate school affairs. Another is that the district has faith in the community to help the principal conduct these affairs."

Key ingredients to the successful implementation of school-based management are time, training, and trust. Implementation should be gradual, the author emphasizes—"it may take as long as three years" to successfully implement the concept. Training should be provided for principals, teachers, students, and parents. And trust between all participants should be nourished from the earliest training sessions.

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214 **Wells, Barbara, and Carr, Larry.** "With the Pursestrings, Comes the Power." *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 8, 2 (November 1978), pp. 14-15. EJ 200 705.

Decentralized school budgeting is based on the philosophy that school administrators become better educational leaders when they are given more responsibility for total school operation. What this boils down to in budgetary terms, say Wells and Carr, is that "they who have the money, have the power."

The authors, who are principals in the Fairfield-Suisun (California) Unified School District, report that the decentralization process begun in their district in 1973 has drastically changed the role of the site administrator. Before decentralization, administrators had two budgetary functions: they maintained records for a small amount of restricted money given them by the district, and they "learned and used persuasive techniques in obtaining 'special money' that a district administrator controlled to use for a local school project."

Under the decentralization plan, individual schools are given funds according to a formula that includes a per-pupil amount and a basic operating amount. As a result, "site administrators are broadened to be managers of change and given the substance to change priorities that affect the quality of education at the school site."

Decentralization of decision-making in this district has been extended to staff and parent levels as well, report the authors. The district also intends to make the service departments of maintenance, data processing, printing, food services, transportation, and personnel into independent budgeting units, with schools paying the service departments directly out of their budgets for services rendered.

15

School Closing

215 **Brody, Judith A.** "How to Close a School and Not Tear Your Community Apart in the Process," **and Beck, Wesley, W., Jr.** "Everybody Got into the Act When Blackwell Closed a School." *American School Board Journal,* 163, 6 (June 1976), pp. 31-35, 46. EJ 139 363 and 139 364.

Closing a school is necessarily an emotional and traumatic event for a community, Brody states, but it need not tear the community apart. Paths to successful closings lie in changing community attitudes toward enrollment decline, long-range planning, and community involvement.

Community members often resist school closings because they equate them with community decline. It is thus important for administrators and the board to help citizens see the benefits that come with declining enrollment. Fewer students and extra space can provide opportunities for achieving racial integration, lowering class size, and creating new community education centers and more early childhood and adult education centers.

The easiest way of overcoming community resistance is involving the community as extensively as possible in planning and decision-making. Community task forces can study enrollment trends and facilities and recommend solutions to the board. Task forces should be broad-based and include community members opposed to a closing.

Long-range planning for declining enrollment begins with collecting data—past, current, and projected—on population, birthrates, budgets, staff, and facilities. State departments of education might be able to help districts with this difficult task. After gathering and analyzing the data, districts will need to develop policies for staff reduction, surplus space utilization, and a host of related problems.

Brody supports her suggestions with several examples of district action. Beck adds an extended illustration of a successful community-guided school closure. Faced with rising costs and an enrollment drop of 15 percent, the Blackwell, Oklahoma, schools reorganized and converted one of four underused elementary schools into a districtwide kindergarten and special education center. The conversion brought curricular enrichment as well as a $154,000 reduction in expenses. The work of a school-community task force proved crucial to the district's two-year reorganization effort.

216 **Educational Facilities Laboratories.** *Surplus School Space: Options and Opportunities. A Report.* New York: 1976. 75 pages. ED 126 614.

Since enrollments first started their decline, districts have found a wide range of new uses for surplus school space. This report discusses the many factors that can influence reuse planning, such as population trends, state law, zoning ordinances, and the needs of private schools, and provides numerous examples of how districts and communities have put surplus classrooms and schools to use. It addresses concerned community members who might participate in reuse planning rather than professional educators.

The first consideration for surplus space should normally go to eliminating undesirable buildings and to housing educational programs and services, such as music, art, science, and vocational education, inadequately served during the period of growth.

Vacant school buildings can often serve a variety of public programs as human resources centers. Such use is especially desirable when a community has fewer school-aged children, but more young adults and senior citizens. The new programs can contribute to a sense of community resurgence and growth and help hold in town people who might otherwise choose to leave.

Sometimes government agencies, such as a parks and recreation department or a community college, can take over a surplus school. Another promising alternative for a district is the creation of a nonprofit agency to take over the school buildings and manage programs. Other options include filling surplus space with preschool and adult education programs, leasing space to private and other public schools, and selling a building for conversion into housing or industrial use. This last option has the advantage that the property will rejoin the tax rolls.

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217 **Eisenberger, Katherine E.** "Enrollment Decline: The Task Force." Paper presented at the American Association of School Administrators annual meeting, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 1976. 17 pages. ED 125 129.

One of the most important issues facing administrators in this time of enrollment decline, decreasing public confidence, and increasing demand for community control is how to provide for effective public involvement in school planning. Eisenberger analyzes the school closing task force, the most widely used form of community involvement in planning for decline. Her discussion supplements that of *Declining Enrollment: What to Do* (see below).

A few key factors, Eisenberger writes, determine the success or failure of the school closing task force. First is the length of time and type of task force. Districts just beginning to confront the reality of school closings should use extended study committees, which meet once or twice a month for nine months to a year. Second is the composition and leadership of the task force. Districts should seek the most comprehensive membership possible. The matter of leadership admits of more choice: an outside consultant or central office administrator may serve as a leader, the board may appoint one, or the task force may elect its own. Third is the means of selecting members. Members may volunteer, the board may appoint them, or community organizations may send representatives. Fourth is the charge of the task force, which may be general or specific.

The most crucial factor is organizational structure. Eisenberger illustrates some structuring possibilities with a case study of one successful task force. At the first meeting, the leader should turn the discussion away from charged debate over school closure to such practical matters as establishing a calendar of meeting dates, deciding what meeting format to follow, and identifying resource people who can provide specific and technical data. When a task force has to decide which schools to close, it will need an objective method. Eisenberger describes in detail the use of the KEMEC model, which identifies and ranks eight school closing criteria similar to those given in *Declining Enrollment: What to Do*.

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218 **Eisenberger, Katherine E., and Keough, William F.** *Declining Enrollment: What to Do. A Guide for School Administrators to Meet the Challenge of Declining Enrollment and School Closings. AASA Executive Handbook Series, Volume 2.* Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1974. 67 pages. ED 111 094.

This report remains the major sourcebook on school closing. Although it suffers from a disorderly presentation, it offers a sound planning framework and much helpful advice.

School closings, the authors stress, are not routine and merely economic problems. Their true issue is the people involved, and they demand the utmost skill, care, and effort in interpersonal relations. Parents, children, teachers, and principals must all confront loss and the difficult task of establishing themselves in new surroundings. Some remedies for the personal problems and tensions of a closing are community, staff, and student polls, student visits to their future schools, teacher visitations and exchanges, and simulation exercises for board members and administrators. Most important is the use of a task force of community members.

Careful cost-benefit analysis and building-by-building comparative studies must precede any selection of schools for closing. Administrators should know the operating efficiency of buildings for the next five to ten years. Their financial knowledge should cover capital outlay, heating, electrical adequacy, maintenance, insurance, and alternative facility use.

The selection of schools for closing, however, must account for more than financial data. Eisenberger and Keough suggest that districts apply several other criteria in their deliberations. These are a school's condition and flexibility, potential use, academic excellence, capacity and present enrollment, and location. This last criterion should include considerations of the distance students have to travel to new schools, new transportation costs, and the maintenance of a similar socioeconomic, racial, and ethnic mix.

This rich study also includes a detailed school closing timeline, which marks out specific activities three years in advance of an actual closing, a school closing checklist, and an enrollment forecasting method for ready use.

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219 **Eugene Public Schools.** *Small Schools Task Force. Final Report.* Eugene, Oregon: 1976. 83 pages. ED 117 804.

A task force studying the possible closure of nine small elementary schools in this Oregon district of thirty-one elementary schools concludes that the smaller schools, even when operating below three-quarters capacity, offer benefits that more than outweigh their extra costs. At current population growth rates, area enrollment should return to normal within the next decade, though attendance boundaries may require some change.

A strictly financial approach to closure fails to consider the value of a school for its neighborhood, the effects of closure on property values, and possible community resentment and reaction. The financial benefits of closing a school should also prove minimal at best. The per-pupil expenses of the smaller schools are only three-fifths of a percent higher than those of the larger schools, and the net savings of one school closure would represent only about one-third of a percent of the total cost of the elementary school system. The opportunities for student participation and the creative use of extra space for both educational and community programs make the maintenance of schools worthwhile.

This report offers an excellent example of how a local school-community task force can study the demographic, economic, social, and philosophical issues of school closure and develop a practical and clearly stated policy that fits the unique needs of the area.

220 **Fredrickson, John H.** *Civilized Strategies for Closing Schools.* 1980. 7 pages. ED 199 904.

One reason that past school closings have fared so poorly with the public, says Fredrickson, has been "the lack of convincing communication by many school officials." Rarely is the public kept adequately informed about the district's enrollment trends and the implications of declining school populations. But some districts *have* developed "civilized strategies for handling declining enrollments" that have significantly reduced negative public reaction to school closings.

One imperative for smooth closings is effective long-range planning. "Long-range plans should be developed to look five to ten years ahead," Fredrickson advises, as has been done in the Highline (Washington) School District. Over the past thirteen years, Highline has closed eleven schools and plans to close eight more within four years.

The district utilized "a multi-year, long-range plan divided into phases each with its own methods, purposes, timetables and special concerns." A task force consisting of an outside consultant and twenty-four citizens established criteria for identifying schools to be closed, identified alternative uses for excess space, and determined how the public would be involved.

Another successful approach to school closings has been developed by the Madison (Wisconsin) School District. A long-range plan was developed for dealing with declining enrollment that included a statement of goals, a three-step process for ranking schools, a list of the seven criteria used in ranking the schools, and provisions for keeping the public fully informed.

221 **Gordon, William M., and Hughes, Larry W.** "Consider This Before Closing Schools." *American School Board Journal,* 167, 2 (February 1980), pp. 31-33. EJ 217 684.

The "Old Main Syndrome" is a sentimental attachment to a favorite school that causes parents and other community members to cry out at the first suggestion that the school might be closed. The only way to overcome the syndrome and avoid major problems, say Gordon and Hughes, "is for administrators to develop a precise set of criteria for determining which schools to close."

First, the district's schools should be listed and the following data identified for each: age of building, capacity, enrollment, rate of enrollment decline, maintenance and energy costs per student, changes in the nature of the area served by the school (highways, new industries, population shifts, and so forth), conversion/recycling potential, and racial balance. Maintenance and energy costs, the authors emphasize, should be computed, using each building's capacity, not its current enrollment.

Next, the district's staff should decide on certain cutoff points that will define certain characteristics of some schools as "undesirable." For example, schools over thirty years old, or over the average age of buildings in the district, should be noted. Schools operating under 50 percent of capacity or with enrollments under 450 should likewise be recorded.

Gordon and Hughes recommend that two charts be constructed —one with the original building data and another showing only the undesirable traits of each building. (Sample charts are included.) When analyzed in this way, the prime candidates for closing often stand out clearly.

At other times, the choice may be more difficult. In these cases, the board can "develop a weighting system for the criteria and arrive at the most likely candidates for closing," or it can appoint a task force of school system personnel and community members to study the situation and recommend alternatives.

222 **Hosler, Galen, and Weldy, Gilbert R.** "A Case Study: How One District Is Closing a High School." *NASSP Bulletin,* 61, 407 (March 1977), pp. 35-46. EJ 160 402.

Hosler and Weldy report the experience of the Niles Township high school district in closing a school. The authors are principals of schools affected by the closing.

After a year of study and public involvement, the Niles board decided in the spring of 1975 to close one of its three schools and transfer its students to the other two. The decision raised a host of unforeseen questions, and the district began its planning in earnest. The board issued a comprehensive position statement and a general closing plan, initiated further community dialogue, and appointed two advisory committees of staff, students, and community members. One committee considered the tasks of moving people and goods; the other the future use of the building.

Following a study of closing alternatives, the first committee recommended that a full school program be maintained right up to closing. The board accepted this proposal in June 1976 and then set the committee to work developing detailed plans for the closing, set for June 1980. The committee divided its tasks among numerous subcommittees for the articulation of certified staff, classified staff, school curricula and services, and cocurricular activities and the disposal of the library collection and school equipment. Planning for the disposal of equipment required nine groups.

The uprooting of students, staff, and community brought by a closing, the authors conclude, demands thorough planning. The district's early start and careful, judicious planning, they believe, will make the final transition smooth and routine.

223 **Leggett, Stanton.** "Sixteen Questions to Ask—and Answer—Before You Close a Small School." *American School Board Journal*, 165, 4 (April 1978), pp. 38-39. EJ 175 691.

For years, districts have followed "the relentless demands of economic prudence" and continued to close small schools over parental and neighborhood protest. But now, Leggett writes, districts are taking a second look at alternative means of keeping small schools alive.

The base issue, Leggett states, is this: Can small schools find ways to cut their per-pupil costs to keep them in line with those of larger schools? His answer is "maybe." He goes on to list cautions and means for cutting costs that districts should consider before closing a school.

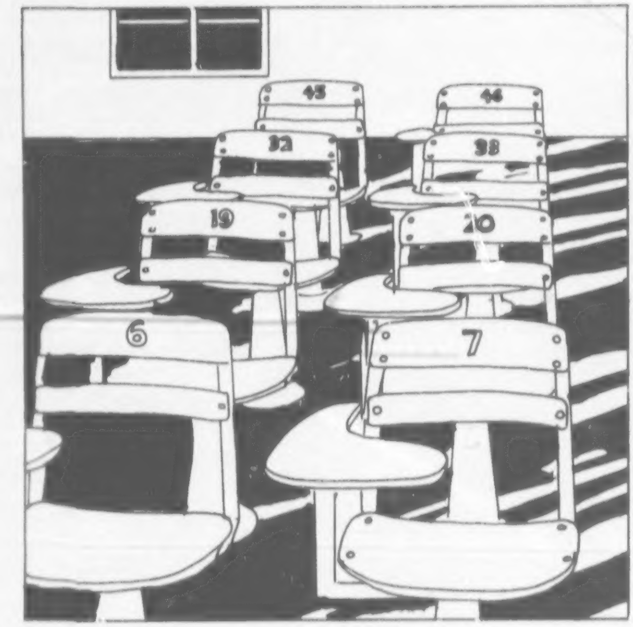
First of all, districts should not "jump to conclusions about enrollment projections." They may find that their presently empty space will be needed again in ten or fifteen years, and its maintenance costs may be less than the cost of a new school. Districts should also carefully examine overhead to make sure that per-pupil costs are accurately evaluated. Many district budgets have built-in prejudices against small schools, since they divide special costs equally among schools.

Administrators have numerous possibilities for cutting small school costs. They can establish multigraded classes; revise staffing policies; use the principal, secretary, and librarian for instruction; have faculty manage a school; use technology for instruction; change from school to central food preparation; make constructive use of empty classrooms; eliminate the librarian and arrange services with the public library; organize the district's custodial workers as a systemwide team; and find new ways to provide services such as art, music, and physical education.

Leggett concludes by advising districts to operate their schools on a program budget. When each school has an individual program budget, the district can bring in the public and ask for ways to keep the costs down. And if it becomes necessary to reduce services or close a school, the decision will meet with greater public understanding and acceptance.

224 **Peckenpaugh, Donald.** "Closing a School? What the Principal Must Consider." *NASSP Bulletin*, 61, 407 (March 1977), pp. 20-30. EJ 160 400.

Peckenpaugh lists and discusses nineteen tasks required of the principal during a school closing. His work is based on the procedures used by the Birmingham, Michigan, schools to close a junior high school.



After the decision to close has been made, a principal's first task is to review his or her assignment to clarify all expectations and responsibilities. The principal will also need at the start to update the district's enrollment study, review possible attendance boundaries for the receiving schools, and establish an advisory committee for community participation in the closing process.

As the closing proceeds, the principal will need to oversee the following tasks: reassignment of staff and students; a public information campaign; orientation programs for students, parents, and staff; new transportation arrangements; coordination of school curricula and cocurricular activities; students' constructive expression of their feelings; disposal of business and student records; division of school equipment; and moving of equipment. Only after all these concerns are met comes the actual closing of the school.

Peckenpaugh fills out his list with advice. He gives the following suggestions, for instance, to help principals divide up a school's equipment, furniture, supplies, and materials. Principals should assign someone to coordinate this task, start with an accurate updated inventory, and work up a defensible rationale for the division. One possible rationale calls for sending equipment first to the receiving schools according to their needs and the number of new students they gain and then to all other schools according to their needs. Principals will also need to pay special attention to school trophies and to class gifts and items purchased by parent groups. For the latter two, principals should seek out the advice of the donors. And last, principals should remember that staff time will be necessary for setting up the equipment in the receiving schools.

225 **Rideout, E. Brock, and others**. *Meeting Problems of Declining Enrolment: Educational, Social, and Financial Implications to School Boards of Declining Enrolments.* Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education, 1975. 104 pages. ED 140 396.

Nine detailed and provocative case studies recount a variety of district responses to underused school space. Some districts have found ways to maintain small schools and satisfy their communities, some have successfully closed schools with a minimum of pain, and others have followed clumsy unilateral planning into community battles and court. The case studies underscore the need for keeping the community well informed, involving the community in finding solutions, and starting with an acceptable plan for school use after closure.

The authors follow their case studies with school closing guidelines. Ongoing research and planning is the first and most crucial step in meeting the problems of shrinking schools. Comprehensive long-term master plans have proved particularly helpful for many boards. Such plans should contain data, updated annually, on enrollment, costs, staffing, facilities, and program adequacy. Boards will also want to consider the needs of other area districts for a possible combined approach to enrollment problems.

Boards should also develop a general policy for declining enrollments well before any need for action. Community members can then have the opportunity to express their concerns before they have a personal involvement in the closing of their own neighborhood school. A general policy should include criteria covering minimum school size and utilization, advisory committee use, and appeals of board decisions.

Also necessary are procedures for a school review and a school closure. When a school's enrollment drops, a review should produce alternative responses, which may include establishing multigrade classes, pairing schools to save administrative costs, adjusting attendance boundaries, and leasing vacant classroom space, in addition to closing. The authors list and discuss the essential actions and concerns for both school reviews and school closings.

226 **Sargent, Cyril G., and Handy, Judith.** *Fewer Pupils/Surplus Space. A Report.* New York: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 1974. 55 pages. ED 093 046.

Schools have several options for facility use during decline, Sargent and Handy report. Newly empty space can at first offer a welcome opportunity for curricular enrichment. As the problems become more serious, districts can use buildings for new educational uses (such as alternative schools), open them up to government and community agencies, and lease and sell them for commercial use. A set of priorities established in advance for the use of surplus space will help clarify district options and ease the closing process.

All districts, no matter what their unique needs, require a plan for school shrinkage, the authors emphasize. A plan for shrinkage must have (1) goals and objectives; (2) a factual base, which should include enrollment projections, data on school location, capacity, and general adequacy, and data on community changes; (3) an analysis of the data; (4) a set of possible solutions; and (5) a choice among alternatives. This latter should include a justification for the choice, a time sequence for its completion, and a cost analysis of all the plans. The authors advise districts to develop both a comprehensive master plan—covering policy, program, personnel, organization, and physical plants—and a closure plan.

The process of closing a school is a political act. Two essential rules should guide it. Administrators should "allow plenty of lead time" and "involve the community in planning for closings and selecting the choices to be made." Some educators have recommended a two-stage process. Districts should first present their data as a whole for community discussion and acceptance, and only then should administrators talk about the specifics of closing individual schools.

227 **Sieradski, Karen.** *Implications of Declining Enrollments for Schools.* School Leadership Digest Series, Number 17. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1975. 32 pages. ED 114 906.

Declining enrollments mean adversity, Sieradski notes, but this adversity offers challenge and opportunity. Districts can make programs better as they condense them, and the process of closing schools can bring closer school-community relations. There are four major imperatives for administrators in this period of decline. Accurate enrollment forecasting and planning long in advance of necessary school closings or reorganization are first duties. Educators also need to communicate with all those affected—teachers, students, parents, and community members—if they hope for any success.

Some of the ways of easing the pain of school closings are coffee hours for parents, interschool visitations for staff and students, and the use of task forces. A task force of staff, students, parents, and community members should fulfill the following duties. It should (1) review the district's enrollment forecasting methods and data, (2) visit and rate each school according to its adequacy, (3) establish criteria for deciding which schools to close, (4) recommend schools to be closed and the order of closure, and (5) recommend future use of the closed schools.

Sieradski also offers a school closing scenario and discusses alternatives to closure and future uses of closed schools.

228 **Thomas, Donald.** *Declining School Enrollments.* 1977. 15 pages. ED 136 374.

The Salt Lake City schools have suffered an enrollment drop from 42,000 to 26,000 students and closed twenty-four schools. Thomas, Salt Lake City superintendent, offers direct advice gained through experience for meeting declining enrollment problems.

When enrollment drops, Thomas writes, districts must find satisfactory ways to reduce staff, utilize surplus space, conserve resources, and meet new transportation needs. Administrators must also be able to marshal support for board decisions. To this end, they must give immediate and total support for board decisions and demonstrate it in quick and decisive action. Dissension among staff will only fuel community reaction.

An effective process for closing schools, Thomas states, should be able to control community conflict, preserve school credibility, and develop community consensus. Once the district-community dialogue produces a decision to close, administrators must work up a specific plan for implementation. Each task must be assigned with a completion date, and task completion must be monitored. Thomas lists the many actions necessary for school closing.

Pointing to the need to maintain district credibility, Thomas advises districts to (1) make all information public at the same time the board receives it, (2) keep all board meetings open to the public, (3) send copies of all reports to key community members, (4) establish only tentative solutions at first and modify them in response to public hearings, (5) keep the media informed at all times, and (6) keep parents and students informed through newsletters, public hearing invitations, and summaries of board considerations.

A slightly condensed version of this paper appears in the March 1977 *NASSP Bulletin*.

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229 **Weldy, Gilbert T.** *Declining Enrollment and School Closing—A Principal Concern. The Practitioner. Vol. VII, No. 3.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1981. 13 pages. ED 201 070.

Closing a school is never an easy process, especially for the principal. In addition to the prospect of unemployment, the principal must face a myriad of complex administrative details. The practical information presented here by Weldy, however, can help ease the pain and frustration involved in the planning and process of closing a school.

In the Niles Township High School District (Skokie, Illinois), where Weldy is assistant superintendent, the principal's administrative burden during a school closing was lightened by two broad-based committees. Subcommittees of these committees helped plan student articulation, certified and classified staff articulation, and the disposition of furniture, equipment, awards, and library resources.

Whether or not the principal has help, a host of important issues will have to be resolved during the closing process. Weldy discusses many of these issues and provides useful and specific advice for the administrator. In the area of staff reassignment, for example, Weldy recommends the following sequence of reassignment during the transition: counselors, administrators, major coaching and extracurricular positions, remaining teaching assignments, and noncertified personnel. Weldy discusses the rationale for this sequence and outlines some possible procedures.

Other major issues discussed by Weldy include faculty stability, student articulation, curriculum modification, disposition of equipment and materials, and parents and community concerns.

Some of the special considerations Weldy addresses are the disposal of the school's athletic uniforms, the disposal of old and dangerous chemicals from science labs, and the disposal of the school's collection of trophies and awards. A final section explains how five school districts have handled school closings.

16

School Security

230 **Bayh, Birch.** "Battered Schools: Violence and Vandalism in Public Education." *Viewpoints in Teaching and Learning,* 55, 2 (Spring 1979), pp. 1-17. EJ 211 747.

Only a decade ago, violence and vandalism in schools were considered troublesome yet relatively minor problems. Today, states Bayh, the former chairman of the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, violence and vandalism are issues of urgent concern to educators, parents, and students alike. In this article, Bayh reviews recent reports on the financial and social costs of violence and vandalism, including three extensive 1975 subcommittee reports. He also describes various programs and strategies that have proved useful in reducing violence and vandalism in public schools.

For example, says Bayh, there is evidence that a well-planned community education program can reduce violence and vandalism. Community education programs open schools to people at night and on weekends, when most vandalism occurs. Besides deterring vandalism by occupying school buildings, community school programs may "help to reduce violence by providing schools with a more positive and active role in community affairs and the solution of student problems."

Another important strategy for reducing school crime is to involve teachers, parents, and especially students in the formulation of a code of rights and responsibilities. A 1975 study found that student involvement in policy- and decision-making processes often increased student commitment to the school and reduced incidents of student crime.

Codes will vary from place to place, but all should contain three main elements: a section outlining the constitutional rights of educational community members; a section delineating the ordinary operating procedures of the school; and a section explaining the various punishments that might be imposed for violations. It is important, says Bayh, that the code use ordinary, clear language and avoid legal jargon.

231 **Burgan, Larry, and Rubel, Robert J.** "Public School Security: Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow." *Contemporary Education,* 52, 1 (Fall 1980), pp. 13-17. EJ 237 731.

The current wave of violence in the schools first came to the public's attention in the late 1950s, when rising levels of "student misbehavior" in major urban centers caused the United States Senate to hold hearings on violence in the schools. However, it was not until "the 'problem' began to creep into more affluent neighborhoods" in the mid-to-late sixties that public concern—and school district remedial action—began to increase.

School security operations were first instituted in a few large cities in the early 1960s and then spread with the rising rate of student violence so that, "by the early 1970s, virtually all school systems serving cities larger than 100,000 people had implemented some form of school security." Burgan and Rubel describe the development of school security during this period and outline the many different impacts of security operations in the schools. They then speculate about two possible futures of school security in the 1980s.

School security may continue to develop as it has. Districts may continue to increase the number and quality of security personnel, improve crime prevention techniques, and focus their personnel and efforts in schools where crime is most evident.

"On the other hand," the authors state, "security programs may follow a course which goes much further toward achieving the primary goal of all law enforcement efforts—the prevention of crime." To do this, security operations need to be broadened so they can "promote attitudinal changes among even the most disruptive youth." Since negative attitudes toward law and society are formed at early ages, and young children are not being taught concern for others' rights and respect for order at home, "we in school security would do well to try to reach them with the message in the classroom."

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232 **Ciminillo, Lewis M.** "Principal Roles and School Crime Management." *NASSP Bulletin*, 64, 433 (February 1980), pp. 81-90. EJ 215 997.

One of the principal's most important duties is providing a safe and ordered environment in which learning can take place. But maintaining a secure school is becoming more and more difficult, particularly in urban areas, where school crime is increasing at an alarming rate. To deal effectively with school crime, says Ciminillo, the principal must learn to function as "part sociologist, part security technologist, part human relations expert, and part curriculum innovator."

As sociologist, the principal must understand the reasons behind adolescent crime, particularly in regard to youth gangs. These gangs and similar subcultures, says Ciminillo, "may be attractive to alienated youngsters because they provide structure and meaning in their lives. They flourish largely because of the failure of other institutions."

To counter the appeal of gang membership, principals should provide youth services that "reduce the need to seek security in gang affiliation." Such services might include increased access to the school's recreational facilities, more use of guidance personnel and outreach programs, and peer-group sessions for high school students.

As curriculum innovator, the principal should emphasize vocational education for alienated students, who are looking for a societal structure to be a part of. "Education must open a direct route to a place in society" for these students, states Ciminillo.

Alternative academic programs and alternatives to suspension and expulsions should also be emphasized, for "there are some students who cannot work within the regular curriculum and must be provided with a structure that enables them to progress." Although there may be an immediate need to improve the school's physical security system, Ciminillo concludes, the principal should also attempt to prevent crime by finding alternatives that dissident students can accept.

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233 **ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.** *Violence in the Schools: How Much? What to Do?* Research Action Brief Number 17. Eugene: University of Oregon, 1981. 5 pages. ED 208 453.

In the mid-1970s, the public schools were commonly portrayed in the press as "hotbeds of violence." An influential 1975 report by a Senate subcommittee, commonly known as the Bayh report, painted a similar picture of the nation's schools. In recent years, however, a number of researchers have reexamined the data on which the Bayh report was based and have come up with "a different, perhaps more accurate, view of the condition of American public schools." This publication reviews both these studies and other new studies that describe the characteristics of both "safe" and "violent" schools.

The studies challenging the Bayh report have found that many schools do indeed have problems with garden-variety types of discipline. But only a small proportion of schools report major problems with violent crime. "For the most part," then, this report concludes, "discipline problems are not problems of violence." Thus, educators "would do well to ease the crisis atmosphere and take a calmer look at what is known about the occurrence of violence in the schools."

This "calmer look" has been provided by three recent studies, one conducted by the National Institute of Education and known as the "Safe School" report. The Safe School report identified numerous characteristics of public elementary and secondary schools that are associated with low levels of student violence and property loss. In schools with low levels of violence, for example, "students consider discipline to be fairly administered and say that classrooms are well disciplined, that rules are strictly enforced, and that the principal is strict."

The general conclusion of these new studies is, in the words of one of the reports, that "the more clear, explicit, and firm the running of the school, the less disruption—in terms of both teacher and student victimizations—that the school experiences." To reduce violence in the schools then, administrators and teachers should establish a fair, rational, and unambiguous code of conduct for student behavior, clearly communicate that code to students, and then consistently and systematically enforce the code.

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234 **Gottfredson, Gary D., and Daiger, Denise C.** *Disruption in Six Hundred Schools.* Baltimore: Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 1979. 262 pages. ED 183 701.

The report of the congressionally mandated Safe School Study (SSS) of 1977 remains the best source of information about school disruption, according to Gottfredson and Daiger. Nevertheless, the report's hundreds of crosstabulations "provide only a weak basis for policy recommendations in which one could have confidence."

In this research report, Gottfredson and Daiger point out several statistical and analytical limitations of the SSS and reanalyze much of the raw data generated by that study. The final chapter distills the study's results and explains "in direct language" what the authors believe are the major implications of the research on school disruption to date.

School size, the number of different students taught by the typical teacher, and the extent to which teachers are provided with materials and equipment they need to teach are implicated as factors predicting school disruption. Small schools, especially at the junior high level, have fewer problems with teacher victimization. Senior high schools that do not rotate students among so many different teachers also have less teacher victimization, possibly because this practice reduces the impersonal nature of the school.

Schools characterized by a high degree of cooperation between teachers and administrators also experience less disruption, as do schools run in a "clear, explicit, and firm" manner. "When students report that rule enforcement is firm and clear," state the authors, "their schools experience less disruption." There is scant evidence, however, "that student participation in the generation of these rules is a necessary ingredient." The authors also discuss community factors as they are related to school disruption. Included are an extensive bibliography, numerous data analyses, and four appendixes containing the original SSS questionnaires.

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235 **Grealy, Joseph I.** *School Crime and Violence: Problems and Solutions.* Fort Lauderdale, Florida: Institute for Safe Schools, 1979. 358 pages. ED 182 864.

In 1975, the total financial cost of vandalism, burglary, theft, and arson in the public schools was close to $600 million, a sum greater than the cost of all the textbooks used in the nation's 16,000 school districts. This increase in school crime is "merely a reflection of the national crime picture," states Grealy, a former FBI agent and the founder of the National Association of School Security Directors. To drive his statistics home, Grealy recounts numerous recent cases of murder, assault, vandalism, arson, bombing, and theft that have taken place in schools all over the nation.

Grealy recounts his experiences in the Broward County (Florida) School District, where he was hired in 1970 to maintain security during the integration of this large district. He outlines the structure and operations of the security department at Broward and includes job descriptions, security and incident report forms, and case histories of some incidents.

In separate chapters, Grealy addresses the safety and security of people and the safety and security of facilities and equipment. Preventing criminal incidents is an essential element of any security system, but administrators should also set up strategies to deal with crimes if they do occur. Grealy provides in these chapters a wealth of nuts-and-bolts details to help districts protect both people and property.

Another chapter discusses some local, state, and federal responses to the school crime problem. Florida's 1973 "Safe Schools Act" and 1976 "Discipline Law" are detailed, as is the federal "Juvenile Delinquency in the Schools Act of 1977." Grealy also discusses Broward's participation in the "Crime Prevention through Environmental Design" project. A final chapter discusses the relationship of the school to the juvenile justice system.

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236 **Harris, John W.; William R.; and Tocci, Claudia.** "Cramping Your Arsonist's Style and Cutting Energy Costs—All by Computer." *Thrust for Educational Leadership,* 11, 1 (October 1981), pp. 18-19. EJ number not yet assigned.

Arson losses in the Hayward (California) Unified School District totaled $500,000 annually for three years in a row. The district's fire insurance premium jumped from $164,000 a year with a $5,000 deductible to $366,000 a year with a $90,000 deductible.

But then the district installed a central computer to monitor fire and burglary at each of the district's forty-three sites. During eighteen months of operation, seven arson attempts were made; because of the new detection system, however, the most severe fire did only $1,200 damage.

Reduction of the district's arson losses and fire insurance premiums is only one of the benefits of the district's new computer monitoring system. "Before installing the computer," the authors report, "we caught 35% of all intruders; since our computer's advent, the apprehension rate has increased to 90%." Thus vandalism and burglary losses have plummeted too.

When the computer detects an intrusion, it switches on the school's exterior lights and the lights in that area of the building. An alarm sounds at the district's central security station—which is manned twenty-four hours a day—and an operator radio-dispatches one or more of the district's four patrolling agents to the scene. The local police also monitor these transmissions and respond as needed.

But the computer monitors more than just intrusions through external and internal doors and dramatic heat changes. It also monitors classroom lighting, classroom temperature, air conditioning equipment, school irrigation, and even the flushing of urinals. Air conditioning and heating won't operate when doors and windows are open or if rooms are unoccupied. Lawns are only watered when needed. School buildings are blacked out at night. These and other computer-controlled actions have reduced the district's utility costs by 50 percent! The district's $685,000 investment in the computer monitoring system, the authors report, has paid for itself several times over.

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237 **Jacobs, E. F.** "Here's How Memphis Cut Vandalism Costs in Half." *Executive Educator,* 2, 1 (January 1980), p. 28. EJ 214 257.

In the past three years, the Memphis public school system has cut its burglary, arson, and vandalism costs in half using a sound-detection security system, states Jacobs, the director of security for the district. Every one of the system's 170 schools contains one or more "sound-detection" units, each of which consists of from ten to fifteen sound-activated microphones.

Whenever a microphone picks up an "impact sound," such as a footstep or breaking glass, all microphones in the area are activated. The sounds are transmitted via telephone cables to a central command station, where a security employee evaluates the noises and signals the police if the noises sound suspicious. The noises are also recorded automatically.

Vandalism costs have been reduced dramatically with the new system, from nearly $600,000 per year to under $300,000. Glass breakage alone has dropped 80 percent.

The system has several additional benefits as well. Possible flooding was prevented when the microphones picked up the sound of running water from ruptured pipes. Fires have been detected before burning out of control. And pilfering has been reduced, because the system can be partially deactivated to operate only in restricted areas such as pantries and storage areas.

The security equipment is leased to the district by the manufacturer. Representatives from the manufacturer train the district's security personnel to use the equipment, partly with the aid of tape recordings of actual burglaries.

238 **Neill, Shirley Boes.** "Violence and Vandalism: Dimensions and Correctives." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 59, 5 (January 1978), pp. 302-7. EJ 169 837.

Several studies in the last decade have shown that violence and vandalism in the nation's schools are on the rise. Neill here reviews the results of many of these studies and recounts the experiences and advice of numerous educators regarding the prevention of school crime.

Neill suggests that the "explosion" in violence and vandalism in the early 1970s may have been partly a media and statistical creation. School crime "was the most publicized education story in 1975," when a Senate subcommittee investigated the problem. But "now it is not," even though the crime problem is probably worse. Vandalism and violence were growing steadily throughout the mid- and late 1960s, continues Neill, but became "new" when the public discovered the statistics school administrators had preferred to keep as quiet as possible.

One problem common to most school districts is a lack of consistent reporting and recording of school crimes. This could mean, states Neill, that "the right problems may not be identified or the right solutions found." School crime experts suggest that schools can better characterize their crime situations by carefully defining and recording different criminal acts, and by comparing the school's crime statistics with those of the community.

To combat school crime, more and more schools are strengthening their physical security systems by adding alarm systems and guards. Other "softer" approaches being used include modifying counseling services, instructional programs, or organizational structure. For example, disruptive students are often being dealt with in new ways to keep them a part of the school community. In addition, many schools are developing clear definitions of the rights and responsibilities of all members of the educational community.

239 "Protecting Buildings from People." *Progressive Architecture,* 59, 10 (October 1978), pp. 88-95. EJ 188 705.

Criminals usually take advantage of a lack of concern for security. Unfortunately "security is more often an afterthought" than a priority issue in building design, states this informative article. Featured here are recommendations from security experts and descriptions of security devices ranging from locks to sophisticated alarm systems.

Of course, no building can be totally secure, but a wise choice of simple security measures can reduce the chance of break-in many fold. The goal is to discourage the criminal from attempting to break in in the first place, and then to frustrate any remaining attempts to gain entry.

A considerable portion of this article is devoted to locks: how different types are constructed, how they are commonly defeated, and the weaknesses and strengths of each type. Most locks installed today do not have the characteristics recommended by security experts and can be defeated by a variety of techniques, such as picking, spreading the frame, or wrenching out the lock-cylinder with a vise grip. Even if a lock is good, a weak door or frame or poor installation can allow easy entry.

Also discussed are the use of remote cameras, coded access devices, ultrasonic and photoelectric intrusion detectors, identification systems, guards and guard dogs, and several other security options. Whether a school needs more than sensible design and good locks depends on the security threat to the school and on the balance of risk and cost that the building administrator deems appropriate.

"Criminal intent," states this article, "should be thought of as an environmental force acting on a building." The administrator should assess the extent and nature of that force—in part by "thinking like a thief"—and then specify the changes needed in the building's security system.

240 **Rascon, Alex, Jr.** "Using Security Agents to Enforce the Law in Your Schools." *Thrust for Educational Leadership,* 11, 1 (October 1981), pp. 15-17, 36. EJ number not yet assigned.

"One well-trained, experienced security agent on campus is more effective than several instructional aides, grounds supervisors, private security guards, or other aides." These people, because of their limited authority, experience, and knowledge of law enforcement, "can only pick up the phone and call the police." Furthermore, says Rascon, president of the California School Peace Officers Association, a security agent enables school administrators to "resume their major role as educator" and provides teachers and students with a sense of security in the school.

Rascon does not stop with an explanation of the rationale for school security agents. In this no-nonsense article, he addresses a wide range of issues relating to school security and to district- or school-based security agents. For example, what kind of person should you hire for security agent positions? Rascon recommends that they be mature and well trained, have experience in dealing with juveniles and with community relations, and have at least two years of experience on a municipal police force. "Police officers fresh out of the training academy are considered by the rank and file to be 'frustrated cops'—overly eager to make arrests and prove themselves—and it takes at least two years of on-the-street experiences to get rid of those frustrations."

If your school or district needed an alarm system, what kind would you buy? "I am amazed at the junk hardware several school districts throughout the state have purchased and installed," says Rascon. He recommends that administrators planning to install alarms first visit one or more of the districts he lists that have good systems.

Rascon also discusses California laws pertaining to school security forces, relationships between school personnel and security agents, responsibilities of these agents, classroom presentations by security agents, special training for security personnel, and guidelines for teaching staff about school security.

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241 **Rubel, Robert J., editor.** *Identifying Your School's Crime Problems: Simple Steps That Precede Costly Action. An IRC Monograph for Practitioners.* College Park, Maryland: Institute for Reduction of Crime, 1978. 22 pages. ED 180 066.

Accurate information on the nature and extent of a school's crime problem is a necessary prerequisite to the development of an effective school security program. Equally important is the proper and accurate evaluation of an operating security system. In this two-part monograph, Rubel addresses both of these important aspects of security system design.

Part 1 outlines a method for identifying and analyzing school crime problems, while Part 2 discusses "the *preliminary* issues that must be considered" before a security program (or any other program) should begin its evaluation design. Throughout, Rubel purposely presents the material in "a simple and straightforward manner" to facilitate its use by busy practitioners.

In characterizing their schools' security problems, administrators should pay special attention to "critical indicators" of the schools' social atmospheres. Critical indicators are situations that contribute to student fear or frustration, lead to additional misbehavior, and cause a deterioration of the total learning environment. A table lists critical indicators that are either school controlled or student controlled.

The first step in characterizing a school's or a district's security needs is to define carefully what will and what will not be considered a criminal act. A glossary of offense classifications should be drawn up with subcategories indicating gradations of offenses, for example: "fight, no harm; fight, harm; fight, weapon."

In step two, "incident report forms" are filled out for each incident indicating time, place, characteristics of offender, nature of offense, and so forth. The reports are periodically compiled into "incident profiles" from which patterns of incidents can be recognized. These profiles are the administrator's tools for accurately identifying and analyzing the school's problems and formulating plans for crime prevention.

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242 **Sabatino, David A.; Heald, James E.; Rothman, Sharon G.; and Miller, Ted L.** "Destructive Norm-Violating School Behavior among Adolescents: A Review of Protective and Preventive Efforts." *Adolescence,* 13, 52 (Winter 1978), pp. 675-86. EJ 202 612.

Adolescents participate in "norm-violating behavior" for a variety of reasons. A review of the literature by the authors isolated several major categories of "contributing motivators."

Crimes may be committed for purely financial gain—often to support a drug dependency—or they may be attempts to strike out symbolically against the impersonal, "rule promulgating" school. Property may be destroyed for excitement or peer acceptance as part of "malicious play." A juvenile may attack other students or the school out of a deep-seated resentment over his own academic failure or because of unfilled emotional needs. Or, a student's criminal behavior may stem from his identity with a gang.

Currently, there are two major approaches to reducing norm-violating behavior among adolescents. The first is technological or architectural in nature and is "designed to protect building structures, contents, and people." Alarm systems, special materials, surveillance cameras, and other technological systems have reduced vandalism in numerous districts, state the authors, but these actions do not treat the *cause* of adolescent crime.

The second approach is a preventive one and seeks to fill the unsatisfied needs of disturbed adolescents and bring them back into the societal mainstream. One of the major preventive programs identified by the authors is career education, which stresses "vocational training and job skills as a way to modify the youth's opportunity structure and thus intervene in his delinquency." Another program is "curriculum intervention," which seeks to provide acceptable educational alternatives for disruptive juveniles.

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243 **Schnabolk, Charles.** "Alarm Systems Rarely Work in School Buildings." *School Business Affairs,* 45, 10 (October 1979), pp. 12-13, 36. EJ 209 398.

"All security systems false alarm at a rate close to 98%," states Schnabolk, and the school security system is no exception. This high failure rate can be significantly reduced, however, if school systems are careful in their selection of an alarm system and an alarm system contractor.

The National Council of School Security Administrators (NCSSA) is presently one of the few sources of reliable information on school alarm systems, says Schnabolk. Reviewed here are some of NCSSA's findings on the advantages and pitfalls of certain alarm systems and policies.

One sensible piece of advice is to "never believe all the claims made by alarm salesmen." All claims should be checked by contacting the NCSSA, "which maintains a record and an evaluation of all alarm manufacturers." Also, says Schnabolk, avoid seeking advice from both architectural firms, which "have traditionally neglected the problems of security," and electrical contractors, who specialize in high voltage equipment and who "are completely ignorant of low voltage electronic alarm equipment."

The alarm contractor chosen should have roots in the community and should have an office within thirty miles, because "maintenance is the most critical factor in any alarm system." At least one member of the school maintenance department should be trained in the system's operation, a useful precaution should the alarm company disappear "from the yellow pages and the face of the earth."

Schnabolk recommends the use of a "listen-in" alarm system, in which phone lines are used to transmit noises from the school to a central security office. The security person on duty can then "distinguish between intrusion and a banging pipe" and thus avoid most false alarms.

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244 **Vestermark, Seymour D., Jr. and Blauvelt, Peter D.** *Controlling Crime in the School: A Complete Security Handbook for Administrators.* 1978. 354 pages. ED 169 678.

"Controlling crime in the school requires a *program,*" state Vestermark and Blauvelt, for "a program enables you to move beyond an essentially passive stance, in which you *react* as the *victim.*" Part 1 of this comprehensive guidebook on school security outlines the essential aspects of developing a basic school security program.

The five chapters of part 1 discuss how administrators can develop a system of "critical indicators" of security problems, how a basic security program should be chosen, what personnel are needed for the security system, how "building a self-protective school community" should be the ultimate goal of security development, and why continued planning is essential to a program's success.

In part 2, the authors—both experienced school security experts—provide information and advice on the major security problems facing schools today. The first six chapters of part 2 discuss the prevention of and possible responses to vandalism, bomb threats, drug problems, rumors, threats, and mass disruptions. In the seventh chapter, a school's possible interactions with the police are outlined. Included are a section on "Why Kids 'Hate' Cops" and several tables outlining police and school relationships in a school crisis situation.

In part 3, entitled "Reinforcing the Basic Program," Vestermark and Blauvelt discuss ways to involve students in the school's security program. Particular attention is given to student rights and responsibilities under the law. This excellent guidebook is replete with useful photos, diagrams, tables, and examples that illustrate the authors' points.

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245 **Wolf, Sam.** "Afraid of the Dark?" *Security World,* 14, 9 (September 1977), p. 70. EJ 188 595.

Wolf, the director of security in the San Antonio (Texas) Independent School District, opens this amusing but informative article by asking the reader about the last time he or she was out late at night in an unlighted area. "Were you looking over your shoulder and feeling the hair standing up on your neck?" he asks. Did you "hurry on your way or just hang around without any concern?"

Apparently even potential vandals will hurry on their way in such situations, a fact evidenced by the significant reductions in the district's vandalism costs after Wolf pulled the switch on *all* lights in the district's schools during closing hours. After an initial three-month trial of this idea at twenty-one of the district's most vandalized schools, there was a 31 percent decrease in vandalism costs, a savings of $45,000. In the same period, the district saved $90,000 in utility costs!

The district has been using this program for five years, and the vandalism loss has continued on its lower trend. The district now concentrates its attention on updating its "electronic surveillance systems to be more capable of detecting burglars." The district has also reduced daylight vandalism, using a prevention program called "Save Your Tax $ Campaign," in which neighborhood citizens are encouraged to anonymously report suspicious activities to a 24-hour security center.

17 Staff Development

246 **Association of California School Administrators.** *Rev Up Your Staff Development Program. ACSA Operations Notebook 22.* Burlingame, California: 1978. 72 pages. ED 189 697.

"A journey of a thousand miles begins with a single rev." So begins this "road map" to successful staff development, put together by a "pit crew" of California educators and administrators. The document is written in outline form, with check-off points for each essential step along the sequential road to successful staff development.

To begin their rally, administrators should review state staff development policy, develop a district philosophy of staff development, and then consider all parties who will ultimately be influenced by the staff development program. Next, existing staff development programs should be reviewed, legislative provisions for staff development should be analyzed, and information about possible funding sources should be gathered.

In step two, called the "diagnosis," administrators should assess the needs of the district, compare needs with existing programs, analyze discrepancies, and then prioritize the needs. In step three ("the plan"), a group—including staff and community representatives—should review available staff development programs and then "select, modify, or develop a program that best meets identified needs." Skipping these first three steps, a road sign warns, is "the best way to wreck your program before you get started."

In step four, the "implementation," information should be disseminated about the program, and then the program should be put into operation. The program may be either a "minimum maintenance" model (with few meetings, an inhouse trainer, and followup provided by onsite administrators) or it may be a "major tune-up" (with a full-time trainer, multiple sessions, and ongoing followup). Finally, the process and content of the whole program should be evaluated. An extensive appendix contains "pit stops for help," including California state laws and policies on staff development, examples of district staff development policies, and several needs assessment instruments.

247 **Barth, Roland, S.** "The Principal as Staff Developer." *Journal of Education,* 163, 2 (Spring 1981), pp. 144-62. EJ 246 490.

"I am convinced that great opportunities for the professional development of teachers reside under the schoolhouse roof and that a powerful force in assisting teacher growth can be the school principal." These words from former principal Barth are more than hollow rhetoric. They describe beliefs formulated after nine years' experience as an elementary principal, during which Barth moved away from using the usual varieties of staff development and developed, by trial and error, a potpourri of effective staff development strategies. In this excellent and well-written article, Barth describes this evolution of practice and reflects on the inadequacies of today's standard approaches to staff development.

The role of the principal in staff development, in Barth's view, is to help teachers move "from fearful and infrequent introspection towards natural reflection by self and others." The best teachers are those "who are able and willing to critically scrutinize their practice *and* are quite able and willing, even desirous, of others having access to what they do." Of course, helping teachers to this point is not easy. In fact, says Barth, "it's hard, very hard."

Much of the success of Barth's staff development program came from "tampering with institutional norms," particularly the norm that influences teachers to be almost totally isolated from other educators during their workday. For example, faculty meetings were held in the classroom of a different teacher each week. During the first twenty minutes host teachers told the others about their class, instructional techniques, curriculum, and so forth. Initially tense and awkward, the meetings soon grew comfortable.

Teachers were also given responsibility for student placement. After the "sending" teacher had spent a half day in the classroom of the "receiving" teacher, the two had lunch together to discuss optimum placement. These and numerous other practices that Barth describes helped break down isolation taboos and established a new norm in which teachers actively and effectively stimulated each other's growth.

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248 **Burch, Barbara G., and Danley, W. Elzie, Sr.** "Self-Perception: An Essential in Staff Development." *NASSP Bulletin*, 62, 417 (April 1978), pp. 15-19. EJ 175 596.

Many studies have shown that "the performance of people depends in large part upon how the individual perceives his own competencies and abilities." Thus, one important strategy for improving teacher effectiveness is to enhance the self-images of teachers. In this article, Burch and Danley explain how principals can indirectly improve the quality of instruction by helping teachers develop and maintain more positive perceptions of themselves.

Teachers, like everyone else, have a need to feel accepted and respected for what they are and what they do. Administrators can help teachers feel more confident and accepted by approaching them with the attitude that they "can do." Principals should also "approach interactions with teachers on a collegial basis" and de-emphasize positional status as much as possible. Before decisions are made teachers should be consulted about important issues that affect them.

When teachers do a good job, it is important that they be recognized "by their colleagues within the school, others within the profession, and by those outside the profession." To generate peer approval—"the highest form of professional recognition"—administrators can use good teachers to teach others, place them in positions of leadership, or recommend them to others. Excellence in teaching can also be recognized through letters of appreciation, individual comments, or special announcements.

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249 **ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.** *Staff Development.* Research Action Brief Number 10. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1980. 5 pages. ED 189 679.

The educational literature contains a large number of reports on "successful" staff development programs. Yet how many of these programs really work, and how can an administrator choose one that is right for his or her school? This publication helps to answer these questions by sorting through "the many dubious reports on staff development programs" and reporting on the few useful studies that identify the important ingredients of successful staff development programs.

A recent study by the Rand Corporation, for example, identified several staff development strategies that had significant effects on the success of educational innovations. The most successful training was "concrete, ongoing, and teacher specific," states the report, and gave teachers "hands-on" training and access to "the kind of assistance they needed when they needed it." Local resource personnel, who were continually available, were more useful than outside consultants, whose suggestions were perceived as too "general, untimely, and irrelevant."

Observing staff development projects in other classrooms or districts proved to be a useful technique, for it allowed communication among teachers in similar situations. The principal's participation in the training was also found to be essential to a program's success. Surprisingly, however, giving teachers extra pay for the training "had either insignificant or negative effects."

Three main themes emerge from the research on staff development reviewed here. First, training should involve "less theory and intellectualizing and more practice and participation." Second, training should be individualized and should be designed to meet the on-the-job needs of teachers. And third, teachers should participate more in "choosing and running staff development programs."

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250 **Farnsworth, Briant J.** "Professional Development: Preferred Methods of Principals and Teachers." *Education*, 101, 4 (Summer 1981), pp. 332-34. EJ 251 436.

A teacher's formal college training is "just the tip of the iceberg," says Farnsworth. Teacher training must be continued on the job with "a systematic life-long exposure to instructional methods and strategies." But what, asks Farnsworth, are the most effective strategies of staff development?

This question has by no means been settled, but several guidelines are emerging from the research on this subject. First, inservice activities should take place on the school premises. Second, those who are receiving the training should be involved in planning it. Third, incentives offered for participation in staff development programs should be intrinsic, not extrinsic. And fourth, the program should be based on a "developmental" rather than a "deficit" program.

It might be expected that principals and teachers would differ as to their preferred methods of staff development. To find out if this was so, Farnsworth asked forty-eight elementary principals and fifty-seven elementary teachers to prioritize "twenty-four possible methods which could support professional growth."

These two groups of educators, it was found, were in fairly good agreement. The three top-ranked methods of both groups were "workshops at school," "observation of other teachers," and "classroom demonstrations." Teachers and principals also agreed that participation in curriculum development, discussion groups, workshops at other district locations, professional presentations, and exchange programs were among the top ten best methods.

Some significant disagreements did show up, though. Principals rated "videotaping of teachers for personal analysis" as their fifth most preferred method whereas teachers ranked it at thirteen. Teachers, on the other hand, thought "books or booklets on specific instruction subjects" rated a nine, but principals gave it a dismal twenty. Farnsworth closes with a discussion of the importance of holding inservice programs on the school campus.

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251 **Halstead, David.** "Developing a Professional Growth Program in Small Schools." *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 438 (October 1980), pp. 26-32. EJ 232 070.

Staff development is as important in small schools and districts as it is in large. And contrary to what some educators believe, a successful, ongoing inservice program is not out of reach for small schools. The keys to success, says Halstead, are "planning and commitment on the part of the building principal and a cooperative professional growth committee."

The principal should select staff members "who have demonstrated initiative, innovation, and cooperation in the past" to serve on the committee and should ask for volunteers as well. The principal should do the "preplanning"—assessing the current need for a program and studying recent research on inservice—and then present his or her ideas to the committee. The committee should then develop and administer a "needs assessment tool" to determine staff members' specific strengths, weaknesses, and needs. Halstead includes an example of a needs assessment questionnaire.

Before implementing a program, the principal should make sure that committee members agree with the direction to be taken. The program should be ongoing as opposed to "one-shot," and the program's effects should be regularly evaluated and changes made as needed.

Halstead suggests that the principal and the committee periodically identify some topics of current interest in the school and then develop and present information relevant to these topics during regular faculty meetings. Since staff members in small schools often do little professional reading or outside study, the principal could also distribute interesting or controversial articles to the staff.

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252 **Joyce, Bruce, and Showers, Beverly.** "Improving Inservice Training: The Messages of Research." *Educational Leadership,* 37, 5 (February 1980), pp. 379-85. EJ 216 055.

What types of inservice teacher training methods are most effective for helping teachers improve their skills? Joyce and Showers analyzed over two hundred research studies that addressed this question and they present here the conclusions of their extensive investigation.

From the research literature, Joyce and Showers identified five major "components of training": presentation of theory, demonstration of skills, practice in classrooms or simulated settings, feedback about performance, and inclassroom coaching. Next the authors defined the "levels of impact" that these training methods could have.

The lowest level of impact is simple awareness of a teaching technique or its importance. The next level of impact is achieved when a training method gives teachers a clear and developed concept of the technique, and a still higher level is achieved when the method imparts the skills needed to apply the concept. The highest level of impact—and the only one with real effect on teaching—is achieved when the learned skills are transferred to the teacher's classroom behavior.

Presenting the theory behind a new technique "is not powerful enough alone to achieve much impact beyond the awareness level," state the authors, but when combined with other training techniques, "it is an important component." Modeling or demonstrating the technique increases the mastery of theory and helps develop organized knowledge of a technique.

Once awareness and knowledge are attained, practicing the technique under simulated conditions is essential for acquiring the necessary skills. After practice, some teachers can transfer the new skills to the classroom, but most teachers require coaching in the classroom to make the transfer of skills complete. Feedback—both "structured" and "unstructured"—can also help transfer the learned skills to the classroom. Joyce and Showers emphasize that a combination of all the training components is necessary for maximum impact.

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253 **Kelley, Edgar A., and Dillon, Elizabeth A.** "Staff Development: It Can Work for You." *NASSP Bulletin,* 62, 417 (April 1978), pp. 1-8. EJ 175 594.

Staff development can be defined as "all those activities sponsored or recognized by the school district" that "help employees do their work better and with greater satisfaction." In recent years, interest in staff development has grown significantly. One cause of this renewed interest, state Kelley and Dillon, is declining enrollment, which has caused "a corresponding decline in teacher turnover with concomitant decreases in mobility and creativity within the profession." Other causes include increased public dissatisfaction with the schools and increased pressures for accountability.

Effective staff development should have several important characteristics. It should evolve from a diagnosis of both district and individual needs and should be designed and implemented to meet those needs. It should be a continuous, ongoing process and should involve all professional staff, including administrators. "Extensive use of one-shot 'dog-and-pony shows'" should be avoided, state the authors, as should outside experts "who are willing to provide a snake-oil cure-all—for a fee—but are unable or unwilling to remain until their panaceas have been implemented and tested."

Staff development should also use what the authors call the "multiplication principle": teachers who are competent or who have recently been trained to be competent should be used to train other teachers in specific skill areas. Kelley and Dillon also suggest that preservice and inservice training be visualized as "a continuum of development which is the joint responsibility of the local school district and institutions of higher education." Included is a brief description of the authors' experiences in assisting junior high schools in Lincoln (Nebraska) develop a staff development program.

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254 **Lawrence, Gordon.** *Patterns of Effective Inservice Education: A State of the Art Summary of Research on Materials and Procedures for Changing Teacher Behaviors in Inservice Education.* Tallahassee, Florida: Division of Elementary and Secondary Education, Florida State Department of Education, 1974. 47 pages. ED 176 424.

The most successful inservice programs are those that involve teachers in the planning and management of their own professional development. Successful programs also provide opportunities for teachers to practice their newly learned skills and receive feedback from knowledgeable resource persons. These are two of the central conclusions arrived at by Lawrence after reviewing ninety-seven research studies on staff development programs.

Lawrence and colleagues compiled all the research studies they could find that dealt with the improvement of the professional competencies of employed teachers. Next, the research team formulated fourteen factors or categories that they used to classify and analyze the widely varying programs.

The team found that inservice programs held in schools and on college campuses were equally capable of affecting teacher behavior, but those held at the school site influenced more complex behaviors, such as teacher attitudes. Programs were more successful when teachers participated as helpers to each other and to outside personnel conducting the program. More success was also reported when school administrators helped to conduct the program or conducted the program themselves.

Inservice programs that had "differentiated training experiences for different teachers" were more likely to accomplish their goals, as were programs that emphasized "demonstrations, supervised trials and feedback." Placing teachers in an active role instead of a receptive one and encouraging teachers to assist each other also led to success. Lawrence discusses the implications of these findings and outlines four examples of "well-designed studies" of inservice programs.

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255 **McLaughlin, Milbrey Wallin, and Marsh, David D.** "Staff Development and School Change." *Teachers College Record,* 80, 1 (September 1978), pp. 69-94. EJ 195 497.

Staff development—"education's neglected stepchild"—is currently receiving much greater attention, in part due to declining enrollment and the declining employment of new teachers that goes with it. Districts must now work with what they've got—older and tenured teachers. Despite this rekindled interest, however, most educators still believe that staff development as it is now practiced has little or no value. So what can be done?

One potential course of action, suggested in this insightful and well-written article, is to rethink "both the nature and the role of staff-development programs." McLaughlin and Marsh here summarize and reflect on the findings of a recent and extensive Rand Corporation study that "presents a fundamentally different view of staff development" than that now found in the literature or in practice.

Not surprisingly, the study found teacher commitment to be a major factor contributing to the success of staff development programs. Teacher commitment, in turn, was strongly influenced by the strategy of program planning. A collaborative planning style—in which administrators and teachers had roughly equal influences on the program's development—was "necessary to both the short-term and long-run success of a planned change effort." Both "top-down" planning and "grassroots" planning—in which teachers conceived the plans—were far less successful.

Teacher commitment was also heavily influenced by the program's extent. "Complex and ambitious" programs were more likely to stimulate teachers than were limited and routine programs. McLaughlin and Marsh speculate that ambitious programs "appeal to a teacher's sense of professionalism" and thus give "intrinsic" rewards that are highly motivating. Supporting this notion is the finding that "extrinsic" rewards such as extra pay actually led to *less* achievement of program goals.

The study also found that successful staff development programs had two complementary elements: "staff-training activities," through which specific skills were taught, and "training-support activities." Support activities—such as continuing classroom assistance by resource personnel and frequent project meetings—were essential for the retention of the newly learned skills. Also included are extensive discussions of institutional leadership and teacher characteristics as influences on the success of staff development programs.

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256 **Olivarez, Ruben Dario, and Berrier, Helen.** *School-Based Inservice Teacher Education. A Handbook for Planning and Providing.* Austin, Texas: College of Education, University of Texas, 1978. 21 pages. ED 186 391.

Many if not most inservice programs are still considered to be ineffective and a waste of time by the teachers who are required to attend them. This situation could be improved, the authors contend, if individual schools established "school-based inservice education" programs that allowed the school's staff to both "determine its own needs for professional development" and "utilize its own strengths and talents to meet those needs." The authors here outline one such program that they developed for an elementary school's staff.

In phase I of the program, the principal establishes a steering committee of teachers to help oversee and guide the program. The steering committee and the principal cooperate to run an afternoon workshop in which all faculty members (divided into small groups) help to answer such fundamental questions as what inservice education is, who should plan and provide it, and what the content should be.

In phase II, teachers meet by grade level to assess their individual and group needs for professional development. With the group leader's help, the grade-level groups select three areas to focus their training on, and then assess available resources (including "local talent") and determine projected dates, places, trainers, materials, and costs of the training.

In phase III, the training sessions are conducted, again with strong input from teachers. "Each grade level training group ought to be responsible for directing its own training experience," state the authors. The groups should find their own consultants, if desired, negotiate their own meeting times, and purchase their own materials. In phase IV, the program is evaluated for future improvement.

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257 **Orlich, Donald C.** "Establishing Effective In-Service Programs by Taking . . . 'AAIM'." *Clearing House,* 53, 1 (September 1979), pp. 53-55. EJ 219 193.

Many teachers perceive inservice programs as irrelevant, poorly planned and organized, and inadequate. These attitudes are often generated, says Orlich, by short-term inservice programs that are conducted without followup and that do not address the needs of teachers. School districts can improve any staff development program, though, Orlich claims, by conducting their programs in a four-element sequence titled "AAIM."

Step one is titled "awareness" and consists of the dissemination of information about new concepts and skills through conferences, lectures, multimedia presentations, and the like. Unfortunately, this is where most inservice programs end. "The staff becomes 'exposed' to something new," states Orlich, "but that is it—exposed!"

Awareness of new ideas alone "is totally inadequate to serve as an in-service model." If ideas are to stick, participants must practice the innovations, which is the second element of the sequence—application. One tested method of application that Orlich discusses is "microteaching," in which a teacher tries out the technique on a few peers or students.

Following a successful second stage, the inservice program moves into the "total assimilation" stage called implementation. During this intensive period, all appropriate administrators and teachers "are involved in a full spectrum of in-service activities which relate to the objectives of the in-service program." This phase is complete when teachers can demonstrate their newly learned skills and know why they are being performed.

The final phase of the sequence is the "maintenance" of the developed skills, which consists of "a continued and longitudinal 'low level visibility' set of in-service activities."

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258 **Smith, Theodore, editor.** *A Monograph on Staff Development.* Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, 1980. 26 pages. ED 201 038.

Does your school have a definitive policy on staff development that outlines overall objectives and establishes the district's and school's commitment to a staff development program? Is there a person in your school or district with defined powers and responsibilities for implementing staff development? Are decisions about staff development made with the involvement of those who will participate in the program?

Those questions and numerous others presented by Smith are designed to help school administrators analyze their school or district staff development program. Smith outlines the criteria of good staff development programs and describes how they should be evaluated. He includes in this general introduction to staff development an explanation of the rationale for school improvement efforts and a description of the basic principles of managing staff development programs at both the district and school-site levels. Although the focus is on staff development in California—particularly in regard to the legal requirements for staff development in that state—this publication should be valuable reading for all educators involved in managing staff development efforts.

A first step in implementing a staff development program is to assess the needs of the school. Smith suggests questionnaires or interviews of staff members, and the analysis of student test data, attendance statistics, course evaluations, and so forth. Priorities should be established by the staff development planning group, and then realistic goals should be established. Next, the target group for training activities should be identified and the content of the program planned.

"It is important that the program participants feel that they have a part in developing the program," Smith reminds us. "Otherwise, they may not feel that the proposed training will be useful to them." Once the details of the program have been decided and released time has been arranged for participants, the planning group should design and implement a strategy for evaluating the results of the program.

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259 **Trohanis, Pascal, and Jackson, Elouise.** "The Technical Assistance Approach to Inservice." *Educational Leadership,* 37, 5 (February 1980), pp. 386-89. EJ 216 056.

"An effective and efficient inservice program requires an overall framework to guide its implementation." In this article, Trohanis and Jackson outline one such framework—termed the "technical assistance" inservice model—which they claim "offers a workable alternative to more traditional inservice approaches."

In the initial step of the five-step technical assistance process, the "agent"—who provides the aid—and the "client"—who receives it—work together to identify the objectives of the process. In this step, the agent—whether it be a principal or other district

administrator— becomes "thoroughly familiar with the overall goals, methods, and time schedule" of the teacher or teachers being assisted. In step two, the client and agent decide how to bridge the gap "between where the [instructional] program is and where the client would like it to be."

Once the needs for inservice are assessed, a written agreement between agent and client is drawn up that specifies "in clear, straightforward language exactly what is to be done for and by the client." In step four, the agent systematically locates, retrieves, and delivers the resources needed by the client, whether they be topical workshops, funds for materials, or arrangements to observe other programs. In step five, the technical assistance process is reviewed and evaluated.

This inservice model, state the authors, can be used to help staff members acquire specific skills or can be used "as a closed-loop program" to improve instruction on a continuing basis. Included is an example of a written technical assistance agreement.

260

Webster, William E. "Many Resources Available for Staff Development." *Thrust for Educational Leadership,* 9, 4 (March 1980), pp. 8-10. EJ 221 571.

The most valuable resources available to a school district for staff development are the principals, teachers, and central office personnel who work in the district. Additional help can often be obtained from traditional sources, such as state departments of education, county offices, and colleges and universities. Webster here describes several new sources of staff development assistance that have recently emerged in California—some funded by the state and some by the federal government.

For over a decade, California has been funding "Professional Development and Program Improvement Centers" that are designed to improve classroom instruction for Title I students, particularly in the areas of reading and math. The centers use a process of clinical supervision with sustained followup and assistance at the school site. Local districts may contract with these centers for the services of their well-trained personnel.

The California Writing Project, an outgrowth of the successful Bay Area Writing Project, is an intensive summer training program for teachers at all levels. A carefully selected group of teachers work with university faculty to improve their own skills, and then they assist other teachers to do the same during the school year.

In 1977, a staff development bill was passed in California that established six "State School Resource Centers." The centers conduct training programs, contract for outside assistance to help local districts meet their staff development needs, and help schools conduct needs assessments. California also has four federally funded "Teaching Centers" that offer the same kinds of services as the state centers.

Webster also describes staff development resources available through the Federal Teacher Corps, Bilingual Education Service Centers, and Child Service Demonstration Centers.

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Wood, Fred H., and Thompson, Steven R. "Guidelines for Better Staff Development." *Educational Leadership,* 37, 5 (February 1980), pp. 374-78. EJ 216 054.

"Inservice teacher training, as it is now constituted, is the slum of American education," state Wood and Thompson. "It is disadvantaged, poverty-stricken, neglected, and has little effect." The authors here review the reasons why staff development is in such disrepair and then offer practical suggestions for its revitalization.

In state and national surveys, teachers and principals report defects in staff development programs such as poor planning and organization, irrelevance to actual classroom situations, lack of participant involvement in planning, and lack of followup in the classroom. Other problems stem from the view of teachers held by staff development personnel as "needing to be" controlled and "wishing to avoid responsibility."

However, "the major flaw in staff development," state the authors, is "that we have ignored what is known about the adult learner." In particular, adult learning should be experience based, because "experiential learning accommodates the special learning styles of adults, and it maximizes the transfer of learning from training setting to application on the job." Recent research also suggests that adults prefer to learn in informal settings, which implies that inservice training should be held in the normal work setting.

Adult learning is further enhanced by inservice programs that demonstrate respect, trust, and concern for the learner. Thus, inservice educators should reduce the threat of external judgment from superiors and encourage participants to work in small groups and learn from each other. Teachers should also have more control over what and how they are learning, and they should be given ample opportunity to practice, in real or simulated settings, what they learn.

18

Student Activities Programs

262 **Blecke, A. E.** "Compensating Teachers for Extracurricular Activities." *NASSP Bulletin*, 64, 438 (October 1980), pp. 78-86. EJ 232 079.

Compensating the sponsors of extracurricular activities has always been a thorny issue and has become even more of an administrative headache since the passage of Title IX. Teachers now frequently complain about inequities in the compensation for different activities or for the same activities performed by different sexes. In this article, however, Blecke outlines an impressive system that will end complaining, will ease the job of deciding compensation for new activities, and will "provide a vehicle for deciding whether programs have grown or shrunk and whether they deserve, accordingly, more or less compensation."

This system was first developed at Antioch High School—where Blecke is principal—by a committee of three faculty members, the student activities director, and the athletic director. The committee first determined exactly what was involved in supervising activities programs. Nine compensation factors were identified: student contact time, preparation and planning time, public exposure and expectations, weekend and holiday involvement, instructional and organizational skill required, student-advisor ratio, responsibility for equipment and materials, travel supervision, and number of other adults supervised.

Faculty members were asked to rate each factor according to its importance for compensation. The committee then established a point system for each category, based on these results. Next, each activity sponsor was asked to indicate his or her level in each category. Point totals were calculated for each of the school's fifty-eight activity positions, and then each activity was placed in one of five groups. Positions within each group receive approximately equal pay. (Pay can vary within prescribed limits depending on experience and merit.)

Sponsors who believe their programs have grown or their compensation is inadequate can request a reevaluation of the activity point total. Included are four figures illustrating the various questionnaires used in this system.

263 **Christensen, Douglas D.** *Planning and Evaluating Student Activity Programs.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1978. 23 pages. ED 148 001.

A useful tool for planning, implementing, and evaluating a student activities program is the MBO/R (Management-by-Objectives/Results) method, fully described in this booklet. Essentially, MBO/R is "a systematic means for an individual or organization to decide what is wanted or what should be done and to formulate a plan of action to reach the identified purposes or goals." Thus, the method is not limited to use with student activity programs, but can be applied to any planning situation.

The first and most important step is to set goals. Goals are very important, says Christensen, because they "tend to create commitment toward their accomplishment" while providing direction and purpose to an endeavor. The author has included several questions and examples to help individuals or organizations identify goals.

The second step is to create an "action plan" consisting of highly specific statements (called "objectives" by the author), each of which "identifies one specific behavior or experience that is to be implemented or completed."

The third step is to delegate responsibilities, resources, and time toward the attainment of the objectives in the action plan. This step involves specifying the nitty-gritty details of reaching the goals and includes using a schedule or time line with specific deadlines.

The final step, and the one most often left out, is to evaluate the success of the plan of action. After comparing actual results with desired goals, one must decide whether the goals were realistic and whether the action plan was well designed. At this point, the "MBO/R Improvement Cycle" begins again with a new definition of goals. Included are examples of action plans and several examples of student activity program evaluation forms currently in use in various school systems.

264 **Gordon, Vera Julia.** "Extra Curricular Programs—How to Survive in an Era of Austerity." Paper presented at the National Association of Secondary School Principals annual meeting, New Orleans, January 1977. 5 pages. ED 136 371.

In times of inflation and shrinking budgets, how can a school maintain its extracurricular programs? The answers given here by Gordon make good economic sense: cut corners on expenses, increase revenues, and evaluate each activity to determine its purpose and whether it is indeed necessary.

In evaluating each program, Gordon emphasizes that the choice is rarely so simple as "keep as is" versus "eliminate in its entirety." More likely, the range is "keep, reduce, change, consolidate, incorporate, rotate, eliminate." Each cost component of a given activity should be examined for possible reduction and, when changes are made, they should be made clear to all involved. Included in the decision-making process should be administrators, staff, representative students, parents, and, in some cases, the community as a whole.

Student activities programs have several possible sources of support, including direct support from the overall school budget, student government funds, fees from members, and fund-raising events. Funds for extracurricular programs can sometimes be increased by various forms of direct appeal from the board of education, the school, or individual advisers, coaches, or department heads. The appeal can be very general in nature or it can be directed at a specific group, such as businesses, alumni, or parents of team members.

Fund-raising events can be a source of much additional income, but administrators should keep the process under eye. For example, the physical security of the money should be assured and good accounting techniques used. More importantly, the wisdom of the fund-raising project should be carefully judged; sometimes pressure to donate or purchase items can have a long-term negative effect on future fund appeals.

265 **Gorton, Richard A.** "How to Run an Efficient and Effective Student Activities Program." *NASSP Bulletin*, 60, 404 (December 1976), pp. 69-76. EJ 158 045.

There are several essential elements of a successful student activities program, including clearly defined program objectives and administrative and staff commitment. But perhaps the most important element for an activities program's success is good organization.

One of Gorton's organizational suggestions is a student activities handbook, to be distributed to students and other appropriate persons at the beginning of each school year. The handbook should contain information on each student group's activities, including "purposes, objectives, types of activities, qualifications for membership and holding office, adviser's name, and who should be contacted about membership or more information."

At the end of the year, each group should be required to prepare a report detailing the accomplishments and progress of the group and particular problems and issues remaining unresolved at the end of the year. The report, suggests Gorton, need be only two-to-four pages long and could be prepared jointly by student officers and the group's advisers.

Another organizational component should be periodic evaluation of the entire activities program once a year, if possible, but at least every two or three years. To help in this process, Gorton includes several questions the evaluator should ask about each specific activity and about the entire program.

Evaluation becomes much easier when each adviser and student officer has a written role description, says Gorton. In addition, both advisers and student officers should participate in developmental inservice training programs to improve their organizational and leadership skills. Administrators should also encourage participation in state and national student activities associations.

Other organizational components discussed by Gorton include a student-teacher advisory council for the total activities program and a director of student activities who would take charge of the overall program.

266 **Hyatt, Ronald W.** *Intramural Sports: Organization and Administration.* Saint Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1977. 299 pages. ED 138 552.

This comprehensive book, addressed to the directors and leaders of intramural programs, is indeed the "complete" book on intramurals. It deals with the entire gamut of intramural topics, from the abstract philosophy of intramurals to the details of drawing up a budget. Although primarily addressed to college and university program directors, there is much that is applicable to intramural programs in public schools and other institutional settings.

Hyatt begins by discussing the history, philosophy, and definition of intramurals. He believes that a "new" intramural program is now being born. The new intramurals, which began emerging in the 1950s, differ from the old in that they are "wider in scope, offer more activities, possess more highly trained leadership, and render more services." In addition, they are often financed as a separate budget item and needn't be conducted within the confines of the school, as the name intramural implies.

In a separate chapter, Hyatt describes the "status of the profession," including the relationships of intramurals with physical education and varsity sports, the current prerequisites and salaries of intramural directors, and the job opportunities available in intramurals. Another chapter is devoted to the special problems and influences of women's intramurals, including the recent impact of federal legislation. These two chapters, as well as the other eighteen, conclude with complete lists of references for further reading.

The largest part of this book is devoted to the detailed "how-to" of organization and administration, budgeting, publicity, evaluation, tournaments, women's programs, corecreational activities, and much more. Organizational charts, sample forms, and pictures are abundant, as are references to research findings and the historical development of ideas. Separate chapters deal with such topics as units of competition and scheduling, rules and regulations, point systems, awards, faculty programs, sports clubs, public relations, and legal liability.

267 **Kaser, Joyce.** *Sex Equity Beyond the Classroom Door: Title IX and Extracurricular Activities. A Technical Manual.* Washington, D.C.: American University, 1980. 104 pages. ED 199 482.

A study of male and female participation in extracurricular activities in almost any high school would reveal wide discrepancies in male/female participation in some activities. Pep club members, for example, might be almost all female, whereas distributive education members might be primarily male.

Are schools with these discrepancies in compliance with Title IX? If not, what can be done? In this clearly written technical manual, Kaser explains just what is and what is not legal, how to determine just how illegal your extracurricular program is, and what can be done to correct sexual imbalances in nonathletic student activities programs.

Kaser's analysis clearly casts the principal in the role of social change agent. After collecting data on the various student activities programs and computing a "Sex Equity Difference Indicator" for each activity, the principal is advised to take action to correct any preferences for activities that seem to be based on sex. For example, if cheerleading has been traditionally a female activity, "then you may need to change the image of that activity as one for females only," perhaps by incorporating gymnastics and acrobatics into the activity.

In step-by-step fashion, this manual provides educators with the information, procedures, and materials needed for complying with Title IX. Background information on the "legal and educational context for complying with Title IX" is provided, along with a listing of "resources for further assistance." Also included is a section detailing methods of assuring sex equity in the employment of activity advisers.

268 **Klein, Norman S.** "Current Status of the Student Activity Programs in Wisconsin Public and Private Senior High Schools." *The Bulletin,* 2, 3 (Spring 1974), pp. 9, 18-20. ED 094 454.

The term "extra-curricular activities" should be eliminated, suggests Klein, and replaced with "student activities." This change would help promote the view that activities programs are an important part of the total educational experience and not "extra" or relatively unimportant.

This is one of many recommendations that Klein makes after reviewing the results of a survey of student activities in Wisconsin high schools. Among the findings were that the principal is most often the person responsible for the activities program, though the literature suggests a need for a separate activities director. Most administrators acknowledged the need for more evaluation of activities, and some appear to be moving slowly in this direction.

The survey also revealed various restrictions placed on students' participation in activities, most frequently grade point average and behavior problems. Most administrators in both public and private schools were opposed to the idea of boys and girls participating together in interscholastic sports. Trends noted include a move toward electing a student to represent the student body at board meetings, and a move toward optional attendance at school assemblies.

Klein suggests that each school develop a set of written objectives and adviser handbooks for all their activities and include administrators, faculty, and students in the process. When activity advisers are chosen, the administrator should attempt to equalize the total load among teachers and give compensatory pay or released time, when possible, to teachers who spend time beyond the regular school day.

269 **Kline, Charles E., and McGrew, C. Daniel.** "Student Activities—An Essential Component." *NASSP Bulletin,* 58, 384 (October 1974), pp. 41-43. EJ 103 477.

Traditionally, the principal's role in student activities programs has been managerial and noninstructional in nature. Kline and McGrew believe, however, that "an activities program does have an instructional role and should be part of a principal's responsibility for instructional improvement."

The principal should first survey the staff to determine who can and will sponsor activities. In selecting a sponsor for a particular activity, the sponsor's qualifications for the assignment should be the primary criteria, not the sponsor's seniority or lack of it. The principal should also concentrate on equalizing the total workloads of staff members when selecting sponsors.

After the sponsors are selected, they should undergo training in leadership, club management, economics, public relations, and legal accountability, to assure that they are aware of their responsibilities. Once a program gets rolling, the principal should periodically evaluate the program to "make improvements, ascertain progress and growth, give direction to planning, and serve as a record."

Kline and McGrew suggest that principals view student activities programs as a "third curriculum," designed to complement the other two curricula (the first being required courses, the second elective courses). In this view, the principal's function is to coordinate the three curricula to assure a rounded educational experience for students.

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270 **Long, Ruth; Buser, Robert; and Jackson, Michael.** *Student Activities in the Seventies: A Survey Report.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1977. 36 pages. ED 143 068.

One of every three students thinks extracurricular activities are more important than coursework. Seventy percent of administrators believe teachers are less interested in student activities than were teachers ten years ago. Two-thirds of student activity sponsors have three or more activities that they are solely or jointly responsible for.

These are just three of the many interesting findings in this report on a recent NASSP survey of student activities programs in the United States. The authors asked a wide cross-section of administrators, activity sponsors, and students about their views and attitudes toward cocurricular activities. They provide detailed discussions of their numerous findings and a wealth of tables illustrating the survey results.

The survey indicated that most students think extracurricular activities are very important—even more important than achieving high grades or having a car! Student interest is also indicated by the findings that nearly 40 percent of students spend ten or more hours per week on activities, and a majority spend $100 or more per year on activities.

Three-fourths of the administrators responded that underparticipation is a bigger problem than overparticipation, especially in larger schools. Almost all administrators believed that prospective teachers should receive more undergraduate training in student activities and that girls should be given more opportunities to participate in interscholastic sports.

Over 90 percent of sponsors spend weekend and evening time on adviser duties. Male sponsors are more active, as are sponsors from larger schools. About half of the surveyed sponsors have had no training for their role in their activity program, but most of these sponsors would like to have training. Less than half of the sponsors are compensated for their extracurricular work.

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271 **National Association of Secondary School Principals.** *Student Activities in Secondary Schools: A Bibliography.* Washington, D.C.: 1974. 95 pages. ED 089 188.

This annotated, 450-entry bibliography is a good first source for those wishing to get an overview of the literature on student activities. Most of the entries are from the 1960s, about 10 percent are from the early seventies, but some are dated as early as 1925. A large number of entries are from the journal *School Activities,* which ceased publishing in 1969.

The bibliography is divided into seventeen sections, with entries alphabetized within each section. Among the topics covered are organizing and administering, financing, student participation, evaluating, objectives and purposes, and faculty responsibility. Other sections deal with specific activities such as assemblies, athletics, clubs, music, publications, speech-drama, and student government.

The bibliography was written for principals, activity program administrators, student leaders, faculty members, instructors in teacher colleges, and researchers.

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272 **Powell, Janet F.** *Scheduling of Student Activities and Employment of Full-Time Activity Directors in Secondary Schools. An ERS Report.* Washington, D.C.: Educational Research Service, 1974. 21 pages. ED 098 667.

How do school districts across the nation schedule extracurricular activities? How many districts employ activity directors, and what are their assigned duties? These are the major questions answered in this ERS publication, which reports on the results of a 1971 NASSP survey of student activities and a similar survey conducted more recently by ERS.

The ERS survey found that nearly half of the responding districts scheduled all their activities after school in all or some of their high schools. This kind of scheduling was found to be more prevalent in larger schools. Another popular option was to schedule activities throughout the day. Smaller numbers of schools scheduled activity programs over an extended lunch period or during the last period of the day.

About one-fourth of all responding districts employed full-time activity directors. The employment of full-time directors was correlated with system size, so that few very small districts (300 to 2,999 students) employed directors (5.6 percent), while nearly one-third of the large- and medium-sized districts employed full-time directors. Interestingly, the presence of directors had little noticeable effect on how the activities were scheduled (after school, throughout the day, and so forth).

Job descriptions for activity directors were submitted by 26 of the 576 responding districts. Eleven of these descriptions are included in this report.

Some of the job descriptions are very general in scope, whereas others are much more specific. The duties assigned to the director vary widely, but most include coordination of the athletic program. Other duties include maintaining the school calendar, providing inservice training for activity sponsors, developing fire drill procedures, coordinating field trips, overseeing school publications, coordinating use of bulletin boards and showcases, and directing the student locker program.

273 **Robinson, Russell D.** *Group Dynamics for Student Activities.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1977. 47 pages. ED 153 337.

Leaders sometimes believe that if a group is well organized and has clear goals and purposes, the success of the group is guaranteed. Not so, says Robinson, for there are four essential requirements for a successful group. Besides purpose and leadership, a group must have an acceptable means of communication between members, and the group members must accept each other. Robinson devotes a chapter to each of these four essential factors in this clearly written monograph.

As a group develops, it goes through four stages, commonly designated "groping, griping, grasping, and grouping." When a group first comes together, members attempt to "checkout" the group and their potential place in it (groping). Next, the power structure of the group forms, as members struggle for control (griping).

After these self-centered stages, some members start behaving in ways that dampen conflict and make the group more "we-centered" (grasping). An extension of grasping is the final stage—grouping—when the members definitely feel themselves as part of a group.

In the chapter on leadership, Robinson discusses the types of leadership roles, leadership styles, and the duties and responsibilities of leaders. The three dimensions of leadership are defined as ability to accomplish the necessary leadership tasks, willingness to lead, and ability to maintain socially satisfying relationships in the group.

The communication chapter deals with problem-solving and decision-making processes in small groups. A separate chapter deals with handling group conflict and discusses topics such as conflict strategies and the "win-win" philosophy. Also discussed is group acceptance, with an emphasis on members' positions on Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

274 **Van Pool, Gerald M.** *Improving Your Student Council.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1977. 28 pages. ED 144 200.

How can a student council assess its organization and effectiveness, and what can it do to improve itself? Van Pool here provides both criteria for evaluating student council performance and a wealth of suggestions for improvement. He recommends that any council that wishes to improve its performance first go through the extensive list of criteria he provides and place a "yes" or "no" in front of each item.

Following the methods for diagnosing a council's performance, Van Pool presents numerous suggestions for the treatment of "sick" councils. The council, for example, should constantly strive to broaden communication with the student body. The opinions and reactions of students should be sought in all areas of the school program in which the council has influence, and the council should find numerous ways to report back to the student body.

The author devotes a separate chapter to the problem of how to "advertise" the student council, with methods ranging from school assemblies and newspaper columns to student handbooks and displays in the school's corridors.

Van Pool also warns councils against becoming cliquish or elitest organizations. The business of the council should not be secret; instead, the participation of every student should be encouraged. "One sure way to 'kill' a council," states Van Pool, "is to have it represent only a small segment of the school population," such as those with extremely high grade point averages.

275 **Vornberg, James A.** "Auditing the Student Activity Program." *NASSP Bulletin,* 64, 435 (April 1980), pp. 83-88. EJ 219 605.

Because students participate voluntarily in extracurricular programs, says Vornberg, these programs "have the potential to outperform the traditional curriculum in terms of motivating students and teaching life skills." Principals, however, often fail to evaluate these important programs as tenaciously as they do the school's curriculum and staff. But student activities programs, Vornberg stresses, should be evaluated just as often and as rigorously as regular programs.

Before an evaluation procedure is established, some "measuring standards" or objectives for the programs should be identified. Unfortunately, says Vornberg, objectives are usually "implied or only subconsciously recognized" by administrators, while sponsors rarely recognize or utilize them. Thus, the objectives should be developed with the help of teachers, students, and parents, and then written down. Vornberg includes several examples of such objectives.

Once standards are established, several means can be used to collect data on the activities programs. Student questionnaires, participation records, and discussion with students are good places to begin. Next, the mechanics of each activity's administration should be examined. Aspects of program organization that should be considered include the handling of student activity funds, conformity to legal codes and district policies, proper selection and training of sponsors, and the coordination of the programs "to best support the school's goals and to eliminate program and scheduling conflicts."

Finally, the data collected should be used to determine if each activity is achieving its objective. This is particularly important "for activities that have decreased participation." Programs not reaching objectives may have an uninterested or overdominant sponsor, may need better facilities or more money, or may be suffering from a lack of student interest. Vornberg includes a list of possible corrective actions for programs not living up to expectations.

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276 **Young, Sandy.** *Developing a Student Leadership Class.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1977. 41 pages. ED 147 999.

"We specifically train plumbers, lawyers, doctors, and engineers," states the foreword to this monograph, "but presently very few schools teach the ingredients of leadership." In fact, states Young, only 15 percent of schools offer leadership training classes, though a great deal of lip service is paid to teaching leadership in the schools.

This booklet, addressed to activities advisers and school administrators, is designed to provide a rationale for leadership classes as well as specific information on course objectives, course content, and methods of instruction for leadership classes.

The first step in organizing a leadership class is to specify course objectives. It is suggested that sponsors begin by "analyzing your own situation and listing and giving priority to the goals you have for the course." But keep goals as specific and realistic as possible, Young emphasizes, so that progress toward their attainment can later be measured.

The course content of leadership classes can usually be grouped into three broad categories. "Basic techniques and skills of leadership and followership" includes information on roles and duties as well as techniques of speech writing and parliamentary procedure. "Organizational structures and styles" encompasses council organization, record-keeping, budgeting, and bookkeeping. "Group processing and personal development" includes problem-solving, decision-making, and human relationships. Other activities that could be covered include the workshop, the independent project, and peer counseling.

Young also discusses methods of instruction for leadership classes. To illustrate ideas throughout this monograph, the author has included numerous examples from existing leadership classes and, in an appendix, presents four complete leadership course outlines that are currently in use.

19

Student Retention vs. Social Promotion

277 **Baenen, Nancy R.; Jackson, Elaine; and Morales, Lydia.** *A Research Summary: The Effects of Grade Retention on Elementary Students.* 1980. 9 pages. ED 196 556.

Retention policies are clearly tied to trends of educational philosophy. For example, prior to 1960, most districts normally retained students who were having severe academic difficulties. In the sixties and seventies, however, it became stylish to "socially promote" failing students. Now, the pendulum appears to be swinging back toward "tighter policies, teaching the basics, and competency-based education."

But what has research to say about the retention-promotion debate? The authors of this brief report discuss the results of several literature reviews and other publications on this topic and conclude that research has not yet determined "whether it is better to promote or retain students who are achieving below expectations."

Some studies support the notion that social promotion is better. Retained students often perform no better than promoted students, and sometimes do worse. Retained students may also suffer from damaged self-concepts, say other researchers. Finally, one study showed that threat of retention did not serve as a motivation to perform better.

Another group of studies supports retention policies. Retained students do appear to perform better, say these studies. Moreover, self-concept actually improves after retention. Finally, "teachers feel the range of ability levels which they have to deal with is more manageable when the lowest achievers are retained."

No hasty conclusions should be drawn from either body of research, the authors emphasize, because "most of the research available . . . has serious methodological problems that make any conclusions drawn tentative at best." The crucial question, according to one study reviewed by the authors, "is actually not whether academically deficient students should be retained but how the most favorable learning situation can be provided for the pupil."

278 **Bocks, William M.** "Non-promotion: 'A Year to Grow?' " *Educational Leadership,* 34, 5 (February 1977), pp. 379-83. EJ 155 099.

The assumption that grade retention provides children "a year to grow" led schools to fail over one million elementary children in 1971. But this assumption, Bocks argues, is a false one based on ignorance of the research evidence. His review of the evidence counters the common arguments in support of nonpromotion and reveals its "devastating consequences" for children. Although he offers little critical analysis of the research and occasionally differs with Jackson (see number 283), he gives a concise and forceful summary of the research findings.

The evidence clearly shows, Bocks concludes, that nonpromotion brings no benefit to children and often brings harm. It fails to ensure greater achievement. The majority of students who repeat a grade achieve no better the second time, and many do worse. Nonpromotion only worsens students' social problems. The threat of nonpromotion does not enhance motivation. And nonpromotion policies fail to decrease the range of student abilities with which teachers must cope.

This evidence and our concern for children, Bocks continues, demand that we respond to student problems by adjusting our classrooms to meet the needs of all students. It is not possible to prepare all students equally for a given grade, and teachers must accordingly individualize instruction to accommodate students' diverse needs.

Administrators have a role to play as well. Lack of knowledge and fear of failure keep many teachers from individualizing instruction. Administrators can help by providing teachers with opportunities to learn the skills of individualized instruction and a safe environment in which to practice it.

279 **Caplan, Paula J.** "The Role of Classroom Conduct in the Promotion and Retention of Elementary School Children." *Journal of Experimental Education,* 41, 3 (Spring 1973), pp. 8-11. EJ 082 200.

Far more boys than girls are identified as problem learners, Caplan reports, and it seems that conduct and sexual norms influence this identification. Her study sought to examine the influence of behavior and sexual norms on decisions to promote and retain students. Caplan matched fifty promoted and retained primary students according to age, sex, race, and grades. Forty were boys and only ten girls, reflecting the ratio at which boys and girls are retained. She found that the promoted girls received significantly higher behavior ratings than did the retained girls and that the mean behavior rating for the retained girls was lower than that for the boys. The two groups of boys evidenced no behavioral difference.

Caplan concluded that girls' classroom conduct seems to be a critical consideration in their promotion and retention. She adds that aggressiveness among girls attracts special attention because it counters sexual norms. Girls' behavior may affect teachers' judgments in this way: aggressiveness may lead teachers to underestimate girls' abilities, while conformity, the expected behavior, may lead teachers to neglect their learning problems.

This study unfortunately used a very small sample and provides only limited data, but it does suggest problems that demand further consideration.

280 **ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.** *Retain or Promote?* Research Action Brief, number 16. Eugene: University of Oregon, 1981. 5 pages. ED 207 125.

Which is ultimately better for the low-achieving student, "retention in the same grade for another year or 'social promotion' to the next grade?" Although a large number of studies have been conducted on this issue, researchers have not yet been able to determine the superiority of either policy, "mainly because of poorly designed experiments."

Most studies compare "the fates of students retained under normal school policies with those promoted under normal policies." These studies, however, are "internally biased" to show promoted students to be doing better. Although three studies have overcome this weakness by "experimentally" assigning students to be retained or promoted, these studies are forty or more years old and have other deficiencies that limit the conclusions that can be drawn from them.

A few researchers have "concentrated on identifying the characteristics of those students who appear to benefit most from retention." One such study found "rate of progress in the year before retention" and "amount of lag that existed at the time of retention" to be successful predictors of success in the retained year. Other researchers have found evidence to support the beliefs of many educators that "retention is most useful for normal but immature students in the early grades."

No valid inferences concerning the relative merits of retention and promotion can be drawn from the available research, this Research Action Brief concludes. But this same research clearly demonstrates an overriding fact: "neither retention nor promotion by itself solves the educational problems of low-achieving students." Unless the present system is adjusted to the special needs of these students, both promotion and retention "will continue to exacerbate these students' failings."

281 **Finlayson, Harry J.** "Nonpromotion and Self-Concept Development." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 59, 3 (November 1977), pp. 205-6. EJ 167 843.

The stricter standards of the back-to-basics and competency-based education movements may pose a dilemma, according to Finlayson. The new standards may force more failure, and failure may damage students' self-esteem and future achievement.

Although past studies have associated nonpromotion with poor self-concept, he notes, they have failed to determine "whether a poor self-concept contributes to school failure or whether school failure contributes to a poor self-concept." In response to this problem, he conducted a two-year study of retention and self-concept, using data collected on first graders at the outset of schooling and through their second year. His study compared the self-concepts of seventy-five regularly promoted students, nonpromoted students, and promoted borderline students showing the same characteristics as the nonpromoted students.

He found to his surprise that nonpromotion did not create self-concept problems. The self-concept scores for all three groups rose during the first year. During the second year, "the *nonpromoted* group of pupils continued to increase their self-concept scores significantly, while scores of the *borderline* and *promoted* groups dropped slightly, but not significantly." The self-concept scores of the nonpromoted students were matched by the judgments of parents and teachers, who felt that the retention was not harmful and most often beneficial for the students.

More research on schooling and self-concept may be necessary, Finlayson concludes, but nonpromotion appears not to hurt the self-concepts of at least very young students.

282 **Haddad, Wadi D.** *Educational and Economic Effects of Promotion and Repetition Practices. Staff Working Paper No. 319.* Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 1979. 61 pages. ED 195 003.

This policy of grade retention is based on several "pedagogical assumptions concerning the determinants and outcomes of school learning," says Haddad. For example, it assumes that the determinants of achievement or failure "are basically academic," meaning that failure can be remedied by spending more time on a subject, that the means of measuring achievement are valid and reliable, that certain skills and concepts are best learned in a given grade, and that failing children are "emotionally better off if they are retained."

The policy of social promotion is based on another set of assumptions that are largely in conflict with those underlying retention. In brief, advocates of social promotion believe that "the desirable educational outcomes are not only cognitive," that the criteria for measuring outcomes are debatable, that repetition does not improve the achievement of low-achievers, and that retention "is devastating to the pupil's adjustment and self-concept."

In this interesting review, Haddad closely examines the research to date on the retention-promotion debate, attempts to determine the validity of the assumptions underlying the two policies, discusses the educational and economic implications of each policy, and outlines other possible options for dealing with low-achieving students. The research reviewed in this World Bank publication is mostly from the United States and other developed countries, but the author made special efforts to obtain studies from developing countries as well.

Haddad's conclusions lean heavily toward favoring promotion as the best overall education policy. But "to promote or not promote" is *not* the crucial question, Haddad concludes. Rather, the issue "is how to improve the level of low achievers, and ultimately how to prevent failure." Haddad makes several recommendations for a new educational strategy for low-achievers "based on a new set of assumptions derived from available research evidence."

283 **Jackson, Gregg B.** "The Research Evidence on the Effects of Grade Retention." *Review of Educational Research,* 45, 4 (Fall 1975), pp. 613-35. EJ 135 378.

Jackson provides us with our only critical review of the research on grade retention. His review rests on a survey of all the literature through mid-1973 and reports his intensive examination of the forty-four available original research studies. He unfortunately does not give the details of any of the studies and proves most helpful for his analysis of the problems of the research, which is generally poor in quality and provides only mixed results.

The research on grade retention has made use of three basic analytical designs, Jackson reports. The first of these designs compares groups of students regularly promoted and retained under normal school policy. Although studies of this kind attempt to match students according to such characteristics as mental age, test scores, and socioeconomic status, their basic design remains flawed and biased in favor of promotion. The fact of promotion indicates that the promoted students are experiencing less difficulty than their retained counterparts.

The second basic design compares the before and after conditions of nonpromoted students. This design is biased toward retention, since it does not control for any factors other than the retention itself that could influence student improvement. The third basic design compares groups of problem students experimentally assigned to either promotion or retention. It alone is sound.

Studies of the first design have tended to support promotion, and studies of the second design have tended to support retention. We cannot know to what extent their results reflect reality or their inherent biases. Only three dated studies have used the third design, and they show no dramatic pattern of results. Further research of a much higher quality than that of the past is necessary.

What then can we learn from this problematic research? The evidence, Jackson concludes, may allow no firm decision in favor of either retention or promotion, but it does hold significance for policy decisions. The studies offer "no reliable body of evidence to indicate that grade retention is more beneficial than grade promotion for students with serious academic or adjustment difficulties." Educators who fail students, Jackson warns, *"do so without valid research evidence"* that such action will prove more helpful than promotion to the next grade.

284 **Koons, Clair L.** "Nonpromotion: A Dead-End Road." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 58, 9 (May 1977), pp. 701-2. EJ 160 460.

Koons reacts heatedly to Owen and Ranick's (see number 287) advocacy of the strict student promotion policy of the Greensville (Virginia) County Schools. The research, he argues, consistently reveals the futility of such a "commonsense" policy and points the other way. Greensville has set out on a dead-end road.

Koons cites research showing that regularly promoted low-achievers do better than similarly troubled students who are retained. Some students may possibly benefit from retention, but for every one who does "there are two or more who are not helped or who may actually regress following nonpromotion."

Owen and Ranick claim that age-based promotion is more damaging than working at the same material until it is mastered. But their claim is based on fallacy, according to Koons. They falsely assume that low-achievers "who are promoted with their peers cannot be given work at a level at which they can succeed."

Age-based promotion is not the malignancy of our schools. If there is one, it is instead one of students "chafing against rigid, harsh standards that tend to degrade them." Making students fit the schools, as Greensville asks, will not solve the problem. We must make the schools fit the students.

Koons also questions the positive results of the Greensville program and offers four possible reasons why its results run counter to the research. First, the results may only indicate the presence of the Hawthorne Effect. They may derive from enthusiasm for the policy change, rather than from the policy itself. Second, the district's higher test results do not necessarily reflect improvement by its low-achievers. A past study has shown that a strict promotion policy can improve overall achievement while decreasing that of low-achievers. Third, the test results may reflect only students' more serious attention to test taking. And fourth, the higher achievement may depend on teachers teaching to the test.

285 **Lieberman, Laurence M.** "A Decision-Making Model for In-Grade Retention (Nonpromotion)." *Journal of Learning Disabilities,* 13, 5 (May 1980), pp. 268-72. EJ 230 295.

Research on ingrade retention has been inconclusive to date. "There are as many studies for it as against it with some highly questionable research methodologies on both sides," says Lieberman. The research aside, however, "to make a decision for or against retention on the basis of statistical evidence rather than on an in-depth analysis of all factors contributing to each individual situation seems foolhardy."

In this excellent article, Lieberman provides a structure for the "in-depth analysis" needed in each individual case. Recognizing the limited progress that research has made in this area, Lieberman's decision-making model is simply a list, with discussion, of twenty-seven factors that should be carefully considered before a retention decision is made.

The administrator or teacher simply rates each factor as being "for retention," "against retention," "undecided," or "not applicable." The factors themselves, Lieberman emphasizes, "are not weighted because it is the individual student who must give weight to the factors."

"Child factors" to consider include such items as physical disabilities, physical size, academic potential, psychosocial maturity, neurological maturity, self-concept, ability to function independently, grade placement, age, previous retention, nature of the problem, sex, chronic absenteeism, basic skill competencies, peer pressure, and attitude toward retention. "Family factors" include geographical moves, language spoken in home, attitude toward retention, age of siblings, and "sibling pressure." "School factors" include availability of special education services, availability of personnel, and the attitudes of the principal, teacher, and school system toward retention.

286 **Light, H. Wayne.** *Light's Retention Scale and Recording Form.* 1977. 31 pages. ED 191 895.

Probably the most common criterion used to decide whether a student should be retained is his or her "social maturity." But, says Light, "this is only one factor among the many that should be considered." To stimulate "a more global look" at each individual child, Light has constructed a "Retention Scale," which is essentially a list of nineteen factors to consider before making a retention decision. To use this instrument, the teacher, principal, or counselor considers each factor and gives the child a score, usually ranging from 0 to 5. The total score is then used as a guideline to determine how appropriate retention is likely to be for the rated student.

"The author would like to emphasize that this scale is never to be used as a 'test'," Light stresses. "It is designed specifically for the school professional to use as a counseling tool during a parent conference or as a means of determining what educational and psychological research would tell us about a specific retention candidate." Items were included in the scale "when research was available for guidance," and the scores following each item "were assigned subjectively after a careful analysis of research pertaining to the question."

Although Light includes a ninety-one-item bibliography and briefly discusses each of the retention scale factors, the research support he alludes to is rarely apparent. Nevertheless, his retention scale and discussion are valuable for stimulating the needed "global look" at each failing student.

Items on the scale include school attendance, intelligence, present level of academic achievement, physical size, age, sex, siblings, previous retention, history of learning disabilities, student's attitude toward retention, parents' school participation, student's motivation, history of delinquency, knowledge of English language, present grade placement, transiency, emotional problems, maturity, and experiential background.

287 **Owen, Samuel A., and Ranick, Deborah L.** "The Greensville Program: A Commonsense Approach to Basics." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 58, 7 (March 1977), pp. 531-33, 539. EJ 153 640.

"Age-based promotion has become a malignancy in our public schools," Owen and Ranick charge, "and its removal requires radical surgery." Our schools have been guilty for years of pushing poorly prepared students up the educational ladder and then cynically expecting them to succeed with more advanced work. Such a practice is clearly more damaging than retention and an injustice to students, for it denies them the opportunity to master needed skills. It also permits schools to deny their responsibility for seeing that all students do learn.

The new program of the Greensville County Schools, Virginia, is an instance of this radical surgery. Its strict promotion standards refuse social promotion: no student is to be promoted until mastering the skills of his or her grade level. Student evaluations are based entirely on the mastery of skills, and standardized test scores play an important role in evaluation. New proficiency-based graduation requirements accompany the promotion standards.

Greensville's surgery, the authors maintain, has been accomplished without impairing the "vital elements of the instructional program." The schools seek "to bring each pupil up to established standards," and they accordingly attend to the diagnosis of students' individual strengths and weaknesses, provide intensive instruction to meet the needs of slower students, and create an atmosphere of success. Retained students are not placed in the same classrooms with newly promoted students, but are

instead grouped with other students of their age. Partial promotions are available for students who achieve most of the skills of their grade. The schools have also greatly expanded their learning opportunities at the secondary level.

The authors report the program an unqualified success. Achievement test scores and measured IQs have risen, the dropout rate and number of retentions have fallen, and students, teachers, and the community have responded with satisfaction.

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288 **Pipho, Chris,** guest editor. "Minimum Competency Testing." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 59, 9 (May 1978), entire issue.

While education has traditionally focused its attention on materials and processes, competency-based education places new emphasis on learning goals and their evaluation. Precisely defined goals lie at its heart and govern instruction, student evaluation, and student advancement and graduation. Its demand for student mastery of prescribed goals stands to ensure minimum student competence and presents a clear "no" to the practice of social promotion. Fed by a strong concern for more efficient and accountable education, competency-based education and its stepchild, minimal competency testing, have rapidly spread throughout the country.

Pipho introduces this special issue of *Phi Delta Kappan* with an assessment of the present status of the minimal competency testing movement. It has now arrived in some form in all states, he reports. Some thirty-three states have mandated competency standards for elementary and secondary students and the remaining states have legislation pending or studies in progress.

Fifteen articles explore the movement and its contradictions on the levels of theory, policy, and district practice and together provide a rich and balanced introduction. No article focuses on social promotion and retention alone, but the issue receives constant attention.

The discussion of social promotion and retention may be illustrated by the views of Gary Hart and Gordon Cawelti. Hart, in his review of the California competency legislation which he authored, supports a return to stricter standards. Our present lack of standards, he believes, has proved a great disservice to students and the schools: "without standards and the accountability provided by a sanction, students become contemptuous, teachers become demoralized, and schools increasingly lose credibility with taxpayers."

Cawelti, in a rebuttal to a proposal for national competency testing, points to the research to argue the harm and waste of grade retention. Critics may be right in noting that teachers promote low-achieving students, he states, but the teachers know what they are doing.

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289 **Reiter, Robert G.** *The Promotion/Retention Dilemma: What Research Tells Us. Report No. 7416.* Philadelphia: Office of Research and Evaluation, Philadelphia School District, 1973. 23 pages. ED 099 412.

Reiter provides less of a review of the research than a summary of its findings. He gives us almost no discussion of individual studies and no analysis of the research itself. His conclusions may thus be suspect, but his discussion of school policy is helpful.

Recent studies, he judges, confirm the conclusions of an earlier review of the research done by the Philadelphia schools. Grade retention appears futile: it ensures neither more achievement nor better social and emotional adjustment than does social promotion. It usually damages student motivation. Its damaging effects appear to be long-term and self-perpetuating. It also does not help schools maintain high standards of achievement.

But an automatic promotion policy—the opposite extreme—causes serious problems as well and fails to resolve the problems of poor achievement and adjustment. In terms of its impact on students, it can only be judged "somewhat *less unsatisfactory*" than its opposite.

The best response to the problem, Reiter advises, is an approach that avoids both extremes and respects students' individual differences. If schools seek to meet individual needs and draw forth each student's maximum learning, the key question to be asked changes from "Should academically deficient pupils be promoted or retained?" to "How can the most favorable learning situation be provided *for this pupil?*" More important than a set policy and administrative convenience are the student's individual needs and the specific context or atmosphere in which promotional decisions are applied.

Schools are seeking the ideal of no failure through such approaches as individualized instruction and nongraded programs, but the powerful impact of extraschool factors will probably prevent their realization of the ideal. Schools may then have to settle in practice for a policy that favors social promotion in general but permits occasional purposeful retention in the primary grades.

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290 **Walker, William E.** "The Slow-Progress Student in Graded and Nongraded Programs." *Peabody Journal of Education*, 50, 3 (April 1973), pp. 191-210. EJ 073 367.

The use of nonpromotion has declined sharply during the past sixty years, but most schools still make some use of it, despite the continued evidence pointing out its problems. Walker judges this present use to be too much and contributes this review of research on nonpromotion and nongraded programs to the continuing debate. His review is the most detailed and comprehensive of the research reviews, though its critical analysis of the research itself is limited. Sometimes its readings are at odds with Jackson's.

The evidence, Walker demonstrates, fails to support a policy of forced nonpromotion. Students in general do not learn more when repeating a grade and often learn less, and the problems of retention appear to be long-term, for retained students never achieve up to par throughout their schooling. Poor self-concept, linked with low achievement, appears to be aggravated by retention. Nonpromotion also seems to foster negative attitudes toward school.

The nongraded, continuous progress program seems an appropriate response to the problems of slow-achieving students, since it removes the conflict between the graded structure of schools and students' individual differences. Research on the benefits of nongraded programs, however, has been inconclusive and often poorly designed. If we are to judge the benefits of such programs, Walker concludes, we will need more faithful implementation of the nongraded theoretical model and more comprehensive evaluation.

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291 "When Students Can't Make the Grade, Do Your Schools Pass Them Anyway?" *Updating School Board Policies*, 8, 4 (April 1977), pp. 1-2, 4-5. EJ 157 068.

This brief review raises the issues of social promotion and grade retention through a survey of administrators' judgments and district policies.

In the past, the review states, schools were content to fail problem students and push them out of school, but in the sixties, pressure for greater equality led schools to take on the responsibility for getting all students through. In the process, schools were forced to lower their standards. Now we are experiencing a turn back to the right: educators are crying out against social promotion and graduation and more and more schools, many under state mandate, are adopting the strict standards provided by minimal competency testing and competency-based education. This new turn holds the promise to "revolutionize" public education.

Some 90 percent of districts still practice social promotion. Among the reasons given are that some students cannot keep pace, no matter what schools do, and that the trauma of retention far outweighs its potential benefits for most students. One district's promotion policy permits irregular promotion when older students are working to capacity or experiencing social or emotional problems and when parents refuse special placement for students incapable of meeting standards.

Among the new critics is Samuel Owen of the Greensville County Schools, Virginia. For Owen, social promotion harms more than retention: it lets students get farther and farther behind until they are pushed out of school. It lessens the motivation of all students. And it also makes it difficult for schools to maintain high standards.

At the heart of any promotion policy, the review concludes, is a basic belief in students' ability to learn. Schools can choose either to "embrace the faith that schools can find the key to help all children learn" (and uphold strict promotion policies) or "conclude that some children cannot be reached and accept the consequences" (and continue social promotion).

This issue of *Updating School Board Policies* also contains a discussion of Greensville's promotion policies.

20

Teacher Supervision

292

Brown, Max H., and Willems, Arnold L. "Lifeboat Ethics and the First-year Teacher." *Clearing House,* 51, 2 (October 1977), pp. 73-75. EJ 170 980.

First-year teachers, despite their inexperience and general lack of self-assurance. are usually saddled with a job description very similar to that of experienced teachers. The heavy workload is often combined with an environment in which the new teacher does not know where to turn for help in the maze of "bosses"—department heads, principals, and various specialized directors. As well, they often find that what they learned in college sometimes conflicts with classroom reality.

Given this situation of "lifeboat ethics" in which the experienced teachers are often in the lifeboat and the new ones forced to "sink or swim" on their own, it is inevitable that the potential of the first-year teachers is sharply curtailed.

In the light of this problem, Brown and Willems believe that "humanistic supervision can serve as a 'life-line'," and they outline three factors that can facilitate this kind of supervision.

"The function of supervision should be the improvement of teaching and learning." Therefore, evaluation is not the goal in itself, insofar as it does not directly lead to improvement. And the first-year teachers should know the expectations of the supervisors ahead of time.

The second factor is that the structure of the supervision plan should be kept simple and clearly spelled out. One suggestion is that initially the supervisor schedule visits with the first-year teacher and develop a supportive relationship before making unscheduled visits.

Supervisors being open, honest, and humane in their contacts with first-year teachers is the third factor. Survey results have shown that teachers believe honesty is the most important trait a supervisor can have and, further, that teachers cite communication as the most important link between teacher and supervisor.

293

DeWitt, William. "Instructional Supervision." *Educational Leadership,* 34, 8 (May 1977), pp. 589-93. EJ 164 123.

"Instructional supervision can only succeed as it becomes a part of, rather than apart from, the visible community which it must also serve." As this statement makes clear, DeWitt strongly advocates that supervisors develop an understanding of the goals and expectations of the community in which the school is located.

This understanding is necessary because of the current "social dissatisfaction with the schools and schooling." The problems caused by that dissatisfaction are heightened by a general attitude that "the schools are the exclusive province of educators and school boards, at least as far as the functionaries are concerned."

DeWitt decries what he sees as the inherent conservative nature of the supervision process, due primarily to the fact that supervisors are often those who have "earned their stripes" as teachers and/or second-level administrators. Thus, they are more "prone to operate as perpetuators of what was and is, rather than what is to be or should be." As well, community awareness and participation are rarely criteria used in selecting supervisors.

One of the main benefits from close involvement with the community is that eventually community goals and expectations will become visible in the classroom; then "the community joins the supervisor and teacher in promotion and revision of the embryonic programs, and they all 'buy-in' to a common product, a product that they understand."

DeWitt outlines an example of how supervisor-community cooperation can work. He describes a case study of an effort in Region One of the Detroit Public Schools to equip teachers to deliver services similar to those of specialists who were eliminated due to decreased enrollment. As soon as this problem was defined, a community council was established. The council, along with the teachers, participated in the entire process, from evaluation of alternative proposals to the selection and funding of the best proposal to the establishment of a pilot program.

294 **Diamond, Stanley C.** "Toward Effective Supervision of Classroom Instruction." *NASSP Bulletin,* 62, 418 (May 1978), pp. EJ 177 657.

"Youngsters and teachers, principals and supervisors, all lose if there is no opportunity for those whom supervision most affects to feed back into the process something of themselves." The democratization of teacher supervision is advocated very strongly by Diamond, who sees it as the key to supervision effectively fulfilling its purpose.

Teachers are becoming increasingly less responsive to supervisory authority that isn't accompanied by concrete helps for the teacher. Also, recent studies have shown that virtually all the teachers surveyed want to have some part in determining the process of evaluation.

Diamond points out that the current literature on supervision contains many innovative suggestions for giving the basic responsibility for change back to the teacher under the assumption that ultimately that is what will produce the most fruit. The movement toward democratization need not conflict with the supervisory task being tied very closely with the administrative task. The conflict can be overcome by spreading responsibility for both throughout the staff.

Diamond is convinced that teachers want to receive help, but that they must be able to contribute to the making of objectives for themselves that make sense. And they must be able to respect and trust their supervisors.

295 **Diamonti, Michael C.** "Student Teacher Supervision." *Educational Forum,* 41, 4 (May 1977), pp. 477-86. EJ 163 579.

In this somewhat theoretical article, Diamonti raises some important questions regarding the efficacy of teacher supervision. He is focusing primarily on the supervision of student teachers, but many of the questions he raises apply to supervision in general.

It is generally assumed that student teaching is the most important part of a teacher's training. The two main guides the student teacher has are the cooperating teacher and the college supervisor—who is the one most often criticized for not succeeding at his task.

The reasons for that are many, but Diamonti suggests that the most important may be that supervision is one role in the training process that is not necessary—at least as it is practiced now.

Utilizing insights gained from philosopher Michael Polanyi, Diamonti theorizes that teaching is a process of using "tacit knowledge," which is made up of rules that "have become so natural to the performer that he no longer must consciously 'think' of them when performing."

By becoming a "professional," the supervisor "has probably fallen prey to the tendency to look to other disciplines for the theory to explain his tacit knowledge. . . . This can be more of a hindrance than a help" for the reason that one comes to "understand what constitutes good teaching by identifying principles of operation that have evolved from the activity of teaching" rather than "applying insights and perspectives from other disciplines."

Given that perspective, it follows that the student teacher would gain the most from his relationship with the cooperating teacher. "Student teaching is a form of apprenticeship, and in an apprenticeship it is usually the master craftsman's responsibility to ensure that the apprentice learns the trade."

296 **Ellis, Elmer C.; Smith, Joseph T.; and Abbott, William Harold, Jr.** "Peer Observation: A Means for Supervisory Acceptance." *Educational Leadership,* 36, 6 (March 1979), pp. 423-26. EJ 197 883.

Teachers are often ambivalent about the supervisory process, or else fear classroom visitation because of its "watchdog" overtones. These attitudes are certainly not beneficial to the instructional improvement process; thus, a major challenge to educational leaders, state these authors, should be "the design of an inservice program that will change teacher perception of the supervisory mission." One such program—implemented by a rural elementary school principal—is described here.

On the first day of the 1976-77 preplanning session, the principal administered to teachers a twenty-item "attitude scale," which would later be used to evaluate the success of the program. Early in the school year, a peer observation system was presented to the teachers, who two weeks later agreed to implement the system. A committee composed of the principal and three teachers was formed to design the observation system and soon decided on a five-stage clinical supervision cycle as the preferred method for peer observation.

Most teachers, of course, had little knowledge of clinical observation, so the principal, with help from two central office administrators, trained the staff in the use of the observation instruments, using role playing and films of classroom visitations to illustrate the observation cycle.

Next, peer observation teams of three teachers each were formed. In October, the principal completed a round of clinical observation, and then from November through March the teams went to work. Each teacher observed the other two team members twice. Finally, in March, the attitude test was administered again.

"Teacher attitudes toward supervision had significantly improved," the authors report. For example, teachers felt much more comfortable in the presence of an observer and felt no need to "put on a show." Fear of pending observation diminished substantially, and teachers felt better about asking other teachers to observe them and offer feedback.

297 **Glickman, Carl D.** "The Developmental Approach to Supervision." *Educational Leadership,* 38, 2 (November 1980), pp. 178-80. EJ 236 674.

Research has found that as young people mature, they go through a "gradual transition from thought that is egocentric, intuitive, and subjective to thought that is more social, rational, and objective," says Glickman. After studying beginning teachers and successful, experienced teachers, some researchers have concluded that this progression "from egocentric to altruistic thinking recapitulates itself when adults enter a new career."

Thus, inexperienced, beginning teachers will likely be found near the egocentric end of this developmental progression, and they will be primarily concerned with their own adequacy as teachers. Those progressing along the continuum will likely be concerned primarily with improving their classroom instruction, while those successful teachers at the altruistic end of the scale will be interested in improving instruction throughout the school.

It is important, Glickman stresses, that the supervisor recognize which developmental stage a particular teacher is in, so that the most appropriate and effective supervisory behavior can be utilized to help that teacher develop. To illustrate the developmental stages of teachers and the appropriate corresponding supervisory behaviors, Glickman invents three teachers at "Highton School" who are at different stages of development.

For the struggling, insecure teacher, Glickman recommends a "directive" approach. These teachers need explicit, detailed help. The supervisor can, for example, demonstrate proper disciplinary actions or can even take over the class while the teacher observes. The key words for this approach are modeling, directing, and measuring.

For the developing teacher, the supervisor would use a "collaborative" approach and would approach the teacher as a colleague. After observation, the teacher and supervisor would share perceptions and cooperatively chart directions for improvement. The key words here are presenting, interacting, and contracting.

Finally, for the seasoned and successful teacher, the supervisor should use a "nondirective" approach. These teachers are usually as good or better than the supervisor in the classroom and mainly need support for their own growth. The key words here are listening, clarifying, and encouraging.

298 **Koehn, John J., and Goens, George A.** "The Talent We Nourish: A Word for Supervisors." *Educational Leadership,* 34, 8 (May 1977), pp. 585-88. EJ 164 122.

The way supervisors view people is a key element in determining how well they succeed at nourishing "the talent that will maximize learning experiences for children."

Koehn and Goens deal with that premise by reporting an imaginary dialogue between two supervisors—one articulating the traditional, inspection-based view of supervision, and the other the emergent, analysis-based growth model.

The inspection-based spokesperson expresses the belief that the top priority for the supervisor is to make sure that the teacher gets the job done. He states that the "threat of evaluation can shape up people who are doing marginal or lousy jobs. If the threat of evaluation was not there, I don't believe some teachers would ever change their ways."

His view is that teachers, like all people, "need to be controlled in order for them to get the work for the organization completed." Consequently, the supervisor is an authority figure and has an adversary relationship with the teacher. The main aid the supervisor offers is suggesting improvements and providing teachers with motivation to do their job well—primarily through fear of what will happen if they don't.

In sharp contrast, the analysis-based spokesperson expresses a view that people "are creative, have imagination, and seek responsibility. . . . They have integrity and will work toward the objectives of a school system if they are committed to them." So the key lies in developing that commitment.

Teachers' commitment is built, in part, by the establishment of a supervisor-teacher relationship "based on helping, with mutual respect, support, and understanding." The authority the supervisor has comes "only from competence and skill. If I am a capable supervisor who can provide sound analyses and observations to teachers based upon their identified needs, then I will become significant to that person."

299 **Krajewski, Robert J.** "Instructional Supervision: Dollars and Sense." *Contemporary Education,* 49, 1 (Fall 1977), pp. 5-15. EJ 174 578.

The "education product" in public education needs to have better quality controls. To support that assertion, Krajewski cites high drop-out rates, declining SAT scores, increasingly negative public attitudes, and spiralling costs.

Effective supervision is a key element in the development and maintenance of more effective instructional programs—a necessity since the increased effectiveness of existing teaching positions is one improvement that can be made without increasing costs.

"The ultimate concern of supervision is to bring about desirable teaching and learning situations for students. It is a total effort to stimulate, coordinate, and guide the continued growth of teachers. . . ." Given that understanding of the goal, it seems apparent that supervisors should be well versed both in instructional theory and in its practical applications by teachers so they can truly help teachers to improve.

One model for an effective instructional improvement plan includes much mutual exploration by teacher and supervisor into instructional changes that will promote the welfare of the students. The teacher makes the final decisions, with the supervisor serving to point out alternatives that otherwise might be overlooked. As well, it is the supervisor's task to influence the plans so they will be as valid as possible and practically applicable. The best setting for these activities is probably the regular visits the supervisor makes with the teacher in the classroom.

Krajewski briefly describes how an instructional improvement program would work. The supervisor would visit the teacher regularly to establish rapport and allow the teacher to initiate questions and learn from the supervisor. Three or four times a year they should implement a model of evaluation that would incorporate video analysis, student ratings, teacher's self-ratings, and the Flanders' Interaction Analysis Category System. These would be used in relation to agreed-on objectives for teaching performance.

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300 **McGee, Jerry C., and Eaker, Robert.** "Clinical Supervision and Teacher Anxiety: A Collegial Approach to the Problem." *Contemporary Education,* 49, 1 (Fall 1977), pp. 24-28. EJ 174 580.

In large part due to the nature of teaching, which reveals the personal characteristics of teachers, the level of a teacher's anxiety while he or she is being supervised is quite high. Since supervision is essential for improving classroom instruction, some way of reducing the level of anxiety while maintaining critical supervision is necessary.

Collegial supervision has been suggested as one means of dealing with the problem. But heretofore, according to McGee and Eaker, models of collegial supervision have not been effective, largely because the evaluations have focused mainly on "efficiency" rather than effectiveness. This failure is due to the small percentage of teachers who actually visit other teachers in classroom situations.

Several recent trends, however, are making the collegial model more feasible. Most important is the increased use of team teaching, combined with increasing teacher-training levels, stability in teacher staffs, and the growth in popularity of clinical assumptions and approaches to classroom supervision.

Team teaching is based on team planning, which "provides the opportunity for frequent, realistic planning for observation of teaching." As well, trust relations among the team members are generally easily developed, a factor that should greatly reduce the anxiety level.

When the teaching performance is evaluated in comparison with the team's instructional objectives, the subjective aspect of the supervision would be greatly reduced.

Nonetheless, some anxiety is inevitable. "One suggestion to minimize anxiety in the beginning is to start with simple observation objectives and progressively move to more sophisticated observation goals."

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301 **McGreal, Thomas L.** "Helping Teachers Set Goals." *Educational Leadership,* 37, 5 (February 1980), pp. 414-19. EJ 216 063.

Many school districts now require supervisors and teachers jointly to establish goals as part of the evaluation/supervisory process. Yet few districts have provided even minimum amounts of training on effective goal-setting methods. As a result, both supervisors and teachers are often frustrated and uncomfortable in goal-setting sessions. To help alleviate this mutual consternation, McGreal here presents numerous suggestions that "have been effective in improving goal-setting activities in a variety of school settings."

A first step in clarifying the goal-setting process is to establish the purpose of the district's evaluation system. Should the system be designed primarily to weed out bad teachers, or should its main purpose be to improve the instruction of all teachers?

McGreal clearly prefers the latter course, for a variety of reasons. A judgmental system will never affect 98 percent of tenured teachers, will strain teacher-supervisor relationships, and will limit the kinds of goals that can be established to those that are measurable. An improvement oriented system, on the other hand, provides the basis for a positive and cooperative supervisor-teacher relationship and considerably widens the "vista of goals" that can be established.

"Not all goal setting needs to be remedial in nature," McGreal points out. Goals can be set that involve "a skill or an area of interest that the teacher and the supervisor feel might be interesting, challenging, and useful to other teachers, to the school, or to the school district." McGreal also discusses the goal-negotiating process and the importance of setting "teaching goals" in preference to "program goals" or "learner goals."

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302 **Niedermeyer, Fred C.** "The Testing of a Prototype System for Outcomes-Based Instructional Supervision." *Educational Administration Quarterly,* 13, 2 (Spring 1977), pp. 34-50. EJ 164 197.

The goal of teacher supervision, according to many contemporary educators, is to facilitate learning on the part of students. This article reports on an effort to institute a specific supervisory program and measure its effectiveness in meeting that goal.

Niedermeyer concludes that it is indeed possible to improve "the rate of program completion and pupil achievement" through the implementation of "an instructional information system" supplemented by "instructional modification strategies."

The system that was tested was implemented in a regular school curriculum over the entire school year in a large population of schools. The system's wide application greatly increased the reliability of the findings. It was emphasized that the materials and procedures utilized would make minimal time demands on the people involved and would not require outside assistance to be implemented.

The instructional information aspect of the program was primarily intended to basically just aid the supervisor and teacher in determining the adequacy of the already-existing instructional procedures. From that, it would become apparent if the teacher needed assistance. The intent was for the teacher, not the supervisor, to take the initiative if assistance was needed.

The instructional modification procedures were primarily implemented as a self-corrective approach by teachers, though cooperation with supervisors was encouraged. Structured followup meetings between teacher and supervisor were considered very important to facilitate the implementation of changes.

The system, it was discovered, was only effective when fully followed. The process included preliminary meetings to work through the information, setting of standards for student performance to be regularly monitored by the supervisor, and formulation and testing of modifications when problems surfaced.

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303 **Reavis, Charles A.** "Research in Review/Clinical Supervision: A Review of the Research." *Educational Leadership,* 35, 7 (April 1978), pp. 580-84. EJ 179 220.

A dominant process for the growing field of clinical supervision has emerged. A strong emphasis is placed on the development of an atmosphere of colleagueship and mutuality in the relationship between the teacher and supervisor.

The process includes both a preobservation conference, in which the supervisor is oriented to the class and in which the two agree on the purposes of the observation, and a postobservation conference in which the critique is made and in which plans are drawn for mutually agreed-on changes.

The supervisor observes the teaching of a lesson and analyzes the teaching in light of the stated goals and also in light of the teacher's behavioral characteristics. The supervisor, after all else is done, also analyzes his or her own performance as a supervisor.

Research on the effectiveness of clinical supervision is still somewhat limited. Nonetheless, most studies indicate that teachers favor clinical supervision over other approaches.

In general, the studies Reavis discusses do not include means of accurately comparing clinical to nonclinical supervision. That omission limits their value in showing the actual effectiveness of clinical supervision.

Still, Reavis concludes that "on balance . . . one can safely say that no study has found traditional supervision effective in changing teacher behaviors when compared to clinical supervision."

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304 **Simon, Alan E.** "Analyzing Educational Platforms: A Supervisory Strategy." *Educational Leadership,* 34, 8 (May 1977), pp. 580-84. EJ 164 121.

The videotape can be a very significant aid in teacher supervision. In particular, videotape can confront teachers with a comparison of "what they preach" with "what they practice," and thereby help them to overcome inconsistencies.

Simon outlines a four-stage process of utilizing videotape techniques that incorporates clinical supervision with some naturalistic supervision assumptions. These assumptions see "value in describing as opposed to measuring and in discovering as opposed to determining." This process allows the teachers to compare their own assumptions about teaching with what actually takes place in the classroom.

First of all, a videotaped interview between the teacher and the supervisor takes place in which the teacher is asked questions relating to his or her beliefs and values about teaching and to the specific teaching situation at hand.

Next, the actual teaching situation is videotaped. Then a videotape is made of the supervisor's attempt to evaluate the teacher's "platform-in-use" (how the teaching is actually done) and relate it to the teacher's stated values. "It is important that the construction of the teacher's platform-in-use attempts to fit the style of the teacher."

The final stage takes place when the tapes—of the interview, classroom, and supervisor's evaluations—are played back for the teacher, who then responds. The teacher's response is crucial; hopefully, it will be one of teachers "scrutinizing their ideas and strategies of teaching."

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305 **Sullivan, Cheryl Granade.** *Clinical Supervision: A State of the Art Review.* Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1980. 55 pages. ED 182 822.

Is clinical supervision a potentially valuable method for educational improvement? Or is it, perhaps, "nothing more than hollow claims"? If the former, says Sullivan, a summary of the characteristics of and experience with clinical supervision should exist. If the latter, "then the fallacies of the system need to be exposed." Although the final word on clinical supervision is not in and may not be for some time, Sullivan's presentation here concisely summarizes what is presently known about the history, process, and effectiveness of clinical supervision.

Sullivan describes clinical supervision as an eight-phase cycle of instructional improvement. First, the supervisor establishes the clinical relationship with the teacher by explaining the purpose and sequence of clinical supervision. In phases two and three, the planning of lessons and evaluation of the lessons take place. In phase four, the supervisor observes the teacher and records appropriate data. Following the observation, the teacher and supervisor "analyze the teaching-learning process," especially "critical incidents and pattern analysis."

Phases six and seven encompass the planning and conduct of a teacher-supervisor conference, wherein "the teacher begins to make decisions about his/her behavior and students' behaviors and learning." Phase eight is entered when the kinds of changes sought in the teacher's behavior are decided upon. Throughout, the emphasis is on improving instruction through direct feedback, without centering on rating forms or items that are exogenous to improving instruction.

Research on clinical supervision is, at present, "sparse," says Sullivan, "and that which does exist reflects a lack of rigor often associated with a new field of inquiry." Sullivan reviews this research, finds some evidence supporting the model and then outlines the needs for further research. Two final chapters discuss the strengths and weaknesses of clinical supervision and implications for the future of this supervisory technique.

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306 **Wiles, Kimball, and Lovell, John T.** *Supervision for Better Schools, Fourth Edition.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1975. 328 pages. ED 099 983.

This is the fourth edition of a basic text on teacher supervision first published by Wiles in 1950. Lovell has revised this edition, bringing it up-to-date and including some projections regarding the future of teacher supervision.

The first part of this quite comprehensive book written for supervisors discusses the nature of supervision and its historical evolution. Supervision is understood primarily as a means to facilitate a higher quality of student learning.

A chapter is devoted to helping supervisors grow in their ability to help teachers release their human potential. They should work to create an environment where all persons have a sense of community with their fellow workers. A viable support-system can lead to exploration and creativity on the part of teachers, particularly when many stimuli are available to prod them. As well, supervisors need to value the input and interpretations of their teachers and to provide sincere help for teachers with personal problems.

Communication is seen as an extremely important aspect of supervision, and it is discussed in some length. "The success of a school system is dependent upon the quality of communication in it. It is necessary to examine bulletins, meetings, conferences, and the social climate to determine whether they facilitate open and honest discussion and decisions by all or whether they lead to isolation, indifference, and covert resistance."

After discussing supervision's two main functions—curriculum development and instruction improvement—Wiles and Lovell detail a number of specifics with regard to the implementation of supervisory programs at the school district and local school levels and give some guidelines for new supervisors.

The authors emphasize giving priority to humanistic considerations in the operation of both districtwide and local supervisory teams. Clearly defined leadership is essential, but decision-making should be based more on ability and expertise than on formal positions. Open communication is a necessity, as is an atmosphere allowing flexibility, creative response, and nonthreatening interpersonal influence.

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226. EDRS. Specify ED 093 046. MF $0.91 PC $5.30.
227. EDRS. Specify ED 114 906. MF $0.91 PC $3.65.
228. EDRS. Specify ED 136 374. MF $0.91 PC $2.00.
229. NASSP, 1904 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091. $0.50 prepaid.

16. School Security

230. UMI. Specify EJ 211 747. $12.00.
231. UMI. Specify EJ 237 731. $12.00.
232. UMI. Specify EJ 215 997. $12.00.
233. ERIC/CEM. University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403. Free.
234. EDRS. Specify ED 183 701. MF $0.91 PC $18.50.
235. Institute for Safe Schools, P.O. Box 21587, Ft. Lauderdale, FL 33335. $29.95.
236. UMI. EJ number not yet assigned. $12.00.
237. UMI. Specify EJ 214 257. $12.00.
238. UMI. Specify EJ 169 837. $12.00.
239. UMI. Specify EJ 188 705. $12.00.
240. UMI. EJ number not yet assigned. $12.00.
241. Institute for Reduction of Crime, Inc., P.O. Box 730, College Park, MD 20740. $4.00.
242. UMI. Specify EJ 202 612. $12.00.
243. UMI. Specify EJ 209 398. $12.00.
244. Parker Publishing Co., Inc., West Nyack, NY 10994. $24.95.
245. Security World Publishing Co., P.O. Box 272, Culver City, CA 90230. $2.00.

17. Staff Development

246. ACSA, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, Burlingame, CA 94010. $4.50 nonmembers, $3.50 members.
247. UMI. Specify EJ 246 490. $12.00.
248. UMI. Specify EJ 175 596. $12.00.
249. EDRS. Specify ED 189 679. MF $0.91 PC $2.00.
250. UMI. Specify EJ 251 436. $12.00.
251. UMI. Specify EJ 232 070. $12.00.
252. UMI. Specify EJ 216 055. $12.00.
253. UMI. Specify EJ 175 594. $12.00.
254. EDRS. Specify ED 176 424. MF $0.91 PC $3.65.
255. UMI. Specify EJ 195 497. $12.00.
256. EDRS. Specify ED 186 391. MF $0.91 PC $2.00.
257. UMI. Specify EJ 219 193. $12.00.
258. Publications Sales, California State Dep't of Education, P.O. Box 271, Sacramento, CA 95802. $1.50.
259. UMI. Specify EJ 216 056. $12.00.
260. UMI. Specify EJ 221 571. $12.00.
261. UMI. Specify EJ 216 054. $12.00.

18. Student Activities Programs

262. UMI. Specify EJ 232 079. $12.00.
263. NASSP, 1904 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091. $1.50 prepaid.
264. EDRS. Specify ED 136 371. MF $0.91 PC not available.
265. UMI. Specify EJ 158 045. $12.00.
266. The C. V. Mosby Co., 11830 Westline Industrial Dr., St. Louis, MO 63141. $8.95.
267. EDRS. Specify ED 199 482. MF $0.91 PC $8.60.
268. EDRS. Specify ED 094 454. MF $0.91 PC $2.00.
269. UMI. Specify EJ 103 477. $12.00.
270. Same as No. 263. $3.00 prepaid.
271. Same as No. 263. $2.00 prepaid.
272. ERS, Inc., 1800 N. Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209. $4.50 prepaid.
273. Same as No. 263. $3.00 prepaid.
274. Same as No. 263. $2.00 prepaid.
275. UMI. Specify EJ 219 605. $12.00.
276. Same as No. 263. $3.00 prepaid.

19. Student Retention vs. Social Promotion

277. EDRS. Specify ED 196 556. MF $0.91 PC $2.00.
278. UMI. Specify EJ 155 099. $12.00.
279. UMI. Specify EJ 082 200. $12.00.
280. ERIC/CEM, Univ. of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403. Free.
281. UMI. Specify EJ 167 843. $12.00.
282. EDRS. Specify ED 195 003. MF $0.91 PC $5.30.
283. UMI. Specify EJ 135 378. $12.00.
284. UMI. Specify EJ 160 460. $12.00.
285. Professional Press, Inc., 101 E. Ontario St., Chicago, IL 60611. $3.00.
286. Academic Therapy Publications, 20 Commercial Blvd., Novato, CA 97947. Manual $7.50, Order No. 183-3; 25 Recording Forms $6.00, Order No. 183-3C; 25 Parent Guides $6.00.
287. UMI. Specify EJ 153 640. $12.00.
288. UMI. Specify May 1978, entire issue. $20.00.
289. EDRS. Specify ED 099 412. MF $0.91 PC not available.
290. UMI. Specify EJ 073 367. $12.00.
291. Available only to members of Educational Policies Service, 1055 Thomas Jefferson St., N.W., 6th Floor, Washington, D.C. 20007.

20. Teacher Supervision

292. UMI. Specify EJ 170 980. $12.00.
293. UMI. Specify EJ 164 123. $12.00.
294. UMI. Specify EJ 177 657. $12.00.
295. UMI. Specify EJ 163 579. $12.00.
296. UMI. Specify EJ 197 883. $12.00.
297. UMI. Specify EJ 236 674. $12.00.
298. UMI. Specify EJ 164 122. $12.00.
299. UMI. Specify EJ 174 578. $12.00.
300. UMI. Specify EJ 174 580. $12.00.
301. UMI. Specify EJ 216 063. $12.00.
302. UMI. Specify EJ 164 197. $12.00.
303. UMI. Specify EJ 179 220. $12.00.
304. UMI. Specify EJ 164 121. $12.00.
305. ASCD, 225 N. Washington St., Alexandria, VA 22314. $3.75 prepaid.
306. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632. $14.95.